

However, it is the mountains, or rather their hidden treasures, that are of decisive importance in the Republic's economy: copper and iron ore, pyrite, manganese, molybdenum and nepheline which form the basis of the developing metallurgical industries. The mountains are rich in splendid marble of varied colours and hues—amber, grey, black with golden veins, practically of all the colours of the rainbow—and beautiful tufa which is light, strong and easy to work. Tufa, which is widely used in construction, adds much to the beauty of Armenian cities and towns.

To extract and process the underground wealth, much electricity is needed. Armenia is not rich in coal and oil but has swift-flowing mountain rivers, many of which have been harnessed as a source of cheap power. The waters of Lake Sevan, which lies in the mountains at an altitude of 2 kilometres above sea level, are used for irrigating arid lands in the Ararat Valley through a string of tunnels, channels and dams. The cascade of six hydropower stations has now been completed. Two of the power houses are underground.

The Republic's manufactured goods are exported to dozens of countries. Armenian-made machine-tools, motors and equipment are to be found in India, Italy, the United Arab Republic, Indonesia, Turkey and Sweden.

Before the Socialist Revolution in Armenia, a country with an ancient culture, only 15 per cent of the population could read or write and there was no university or college. Now there are eleven higher educational institutions and 45 specialised secondary schools with about 80,000 students. General education schools have an attendance of 553,000.

The Matenadaran depository of ancient manuscripts is unique. Among its 11,000 manuscripts are the works of ancient mathematicians, geographers and philosophers and the writings of ancient Greek scholars preserved only in the Armenian translation.

THE TURKMEN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

Formed October 27, 1924; area 488,100 sq. km; population, as of January 1, 1967, 1,971,000; Turkmens 60.9 per cent, Russians 17.3 per cent, Uzbeks 8.3 per cent and Kazakhs 4.6 per cent.

Ashkhabad, the capital, has a population of 238,000.

USSR

Questions and Answers



NOVOSTI PRESS AGENCY PUBLISHING HOUSE

TO THE READER

In compiling the second, revised and supplemented edition of Questions and Answers, due heed has been paid to suggestions and comments sent in by readers in many countries. A concerted effort has been made to answer all questions sent in, although it is hardly possible to tell the reader everything he might want to know about the Soviet Union in one book.

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We welcome your comments and suggestions. Write to us at the following address:

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Population, Geography and Climate

WHERE IS THE USSR SITUATED?

The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics is situated in Eastern Europe and Northern and Central Asia.

It stretches from the tip of Rudolf Island in Franz Josef Land, an archipelago in the Arctic Ocean ($81^{\circ}50'N.$) to the southernmost point ($35^{\circ}08'N.$) near the town of Kushka in the Turkmen Republic. From west to east it extends from the vicinity of the city of Kaliningrad ($19^{\circ}38'E.$) to Ratmanov Island in the Bering Strait ($169^{\circ}40'W.$).

In the north, the frontiers of the USSR are washed by the Arctic Ocean and the Barents, White, Kara, Laptev, East Siberian and Chukchi seas; in the south, by the Black, Azov and Caspian seas; in the east, by the Pacific Ocean and the Bering Sea, the Sea of Okhotsk and the Sea of Japan; in the west, by the Baltic.

Twelve countries border on the Soviet Union. They are Norway, Finland, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Rumania, Turkey, Iran, Afghanistan, China, Mongolia and the Korean People's Democratic Republic. In places, the

borders of Japan and the United States are very close to the Soviet Union.

Over two-thirds of the 60,000 km frontier borders on the sea.

No other country in the world has such long frontiers or so many countries bordering on it.

HOW BIG IS THE USSR?

The Soviet Union is the largest country in the world. It occupies 22,400,000 sq. km, more than 6 per cent of the earth's inhabited land area. The Soviet Union is nearly two and a half times the size of the United States, seven times as big as India, 60 times as big as Japan and 90 times as big as Great Britain. Its total length from north to south is about 5,000 km and from west to east about 10,000 km, which comprises about a quarter of the equator.

Eleven of the 24 time zones into which the world is divided intersect the territory of the USSR. When Muscovites sit down to dinner their fellow countrymen on Sakhalin Island greet the dawn.

WHAT IS THE POPULATION DENSITY?

As of January 1, 1967, the population was over 234,000,000. The Soviet Union has the third largest population in the world, next to China and India. The average density of population in the Soviet Union is 10.4 persons per square kilometre (as of January 1, 1967). Naturally, there are long-inhabited regions with several times the average density and sparsely populated areas, particularly in the north.

Union Republics with the highest density of population per square kilometre are: Moldavia, 100 persons; the Ukraine, 76; Armenia, 75; Georgia, 65 and Azerbaijan, 55. The Republics with the lowest population density are Kazakhstan, 4.5 persons per square kilometre, and Turkmenia, 4. The figure for the Russian Federation is 7.4; Kirghizia, 13; Tajikistan, 19; Uzbekistan, 22; Estonia, 29; Latvia, 36; Byelorussia, 42; and Lithuania, 46.

The population density in the European part of the Soviet Union is somewhat higher than 30 persons per square kilometre, compared with only 3 persons in the Asiatic part.

The most densely populated area is the centre of the European part, especially the Moscow Region, which includes Moscow, with 245 persons per square kilometre; the Evenk National Region, the northeastern extremity, is the most sparsely populated area in the country with only 0.01 person per square kilometre.

HOW FAST IS THE POPULATION GROWING?

By six persons a minute (about 9,000 persons a day) and more than three million persons a year. In the ten years between 1957 and 1966 the population of the USSR grew by 33,000,000. This increase exceeds the combined population of Sweden, Denmark, Finland, Greece and Austria.

The Soviet Union bore the brunt of the burden in World War II; over 20 million were killed at the front and in the occupied areas. Despite this and the sharp drop in the birth rate in the war years, by the beginning of 1967 the population had topped the prewar figure by 40,000,000. Half the population of the USSR are people under 26. By the end of 1970 the population of the Soviet Union will reach 250,000,000; by 1975, 263,000,000; and by 1980, about 280,000,000 people.

WHAT IS THE PROPORTION OF FEMALES?

The 1939 census gave the ratio as 48 per cent males and 52 per cent females. The census of January 15, 1959, showed a different picture—45 per cent males to 55 per cent females. The disproportion is the result of the heavy casualties among the male population in World War II. According to the 1959 census, 62.5 per cent of over-40 age group were women.

The «disproportion» of males is decreasing every year but it will take some time to even out. By the beginning of 1966 there were 106.1 million men to 125.8 million women. There were more men under 40 than women. However, this is due to the higher proportion of men in the under-23 age group. Overall figures show that men constitute 45.6 per cent of the population.

WHAT IS THE PERCENTAGE OF URBAN DWELLERS?

As of January 1, 1967, the urban population was 128,000,000 compared to 106,400,000 who lived in the countryside.

Before World War I, 18 per cent lived in the cities. By 1939 the figure had soared to 32 per cent and on January 1, 1967, to 55 per cent.

The urban population is expected to reach 144 million by the end of 1970; 165 million by 1975; 190 million by 1980. By the end of 1980 almost 70 per cent of the Soviet population will live in cities.

HOW MANY NATIONALITIES INHABIT THE USSR?

The Soviet Union is a multinational state. The 1959 census registered 109 nationalities plus 11 small national groups related to other nationalities.

More than 90 nationalities are indigenous. They arose on the territory of the USSR in the course of history. Side by side with such large nationalities as the Russians¹ (114,100,000 people), Ukrainians (37,300,000), Byelorussians (7,900,000), Uzbeks (6,000,000), Kazakhs (3,600,000), Azerbaijanians (2,900,000), Armenians (2,800,000), Georgians (2,700,000), Lithuanians (2,300,000) and Jews (2,300,000) there are peoples numbering less than 1,000, such as the Aleuts, Nganasanes, Orochis, Tofalars, Yukagirs and others.

The indigenous nationalities, comprising 97.6 per cent of the total population, have their own state organisation. Only ethnic groups of foreign origin (Germans, Poles, Bulgarians, Kurds, Greeks) have no state organisation of their own.

HOW MANY TOWNS AND RURAL COMMUNITIES ARE THERE IN THE USSR?

As of January 1, 1966, there were 1,832 towns and 3,418 urban-type communities.

¹ As of January, 1959.

They include cities founded 800 to 1,000 or 1,500 years ago, like Kiev, Novgorod, Moscow, Samarkand, Bukhara, and Tbilisi and many young cities that have arisen in the past 10, 20 or 30 years, such as Magnitogorsk, Norilsk, Igarka, Magadan, Karaganda, Rustavi, Angarsk, Bratsk and others.

Pre-revolutionary Russia had only 29 cities with a population of over 100,000. In 1966 there were 192, with an aggregate population of 64,800,000. By January 1, 1967 there were ten times as many towns with a population of over half a million as in 1926. Eight cities have more than 1,000,000 inhabitants: Moscow, 6,507,000; Leningrad, 3,706,000; Kiev, 1,417,000; Baku, 1,196,000; Tashkent, 1,241,000; Gorky, 1,120,000; Kharkov, 1,125,000 and Novosibirsk, 1,064,000.

On January 1, 1961 there were 704,811 rural communities in the Soviet Union. They included 283,693 with less than 10 inhabitants; 137,085 with 11 to 50 inhabitants; 80,924 with 51 to 100; 182,927 with 101 to 1,000; 19,507 with 1,001 to 5,000, and 675 with more than 5,000.

WHAT IS THE CLIMATE LIKE?

A country stretching from the subtropical zone to the Arctic Ocean naturally has an extremely varied climate. There is one feature that is common to the whole country, though, the distinct difference between the cold and warm periods of the year. Winter and summer vary in different regions, but the contrast between the seasons is fairly distinct everywhere. Summer temperatures throughout the territory of the USSR (with the exception of the Taimyr Peninsula and the islands of the Arctic Ocean) go up to 30° C and higher, while in winter the mercury can drop to minus 30° C and lower (except along the Crimean and Caucasian coast of the Black Sea). When spring comes to Moscow, it is already summer in the south, while in the north it is still winter. When the temperature in the northern parts of Siberia is minus 50° C, roses are in bloom in western Georgia. The lowest temperatures are registered in the vicinity of the town of Oimyakon, in northeastern Yakutia. Here the mean temperature in January is minus 50° C and it can drop to minus 70° C.

The hottest part of the country is Central Asia where the mean temperature of the warmest month is more than 30° C. The maximum, registered in the town of Termez, is about 50° C.

WHAT ARE SOVIET SUBTROPICS LIKE?

The Soviet Union's subtropical region stretching in a narrow coastal strip along the Black Sea and sheltered from the north by mountains, is a truly fabulous place.

Soviet and foreign scientists note that nowhere else in the temperate zone has nature been so generous. The water is warm enough to swim in seven months of the year. At every step there is something to delight and amaze the eye.

Luxuriant subtropical vegetation covers the entire amphitheatre of coastal hills. Palms, huge cacti, agaves and aloes grow out in the open.

Many plants from Japan, Australia and New Zealand that would not grow on the Mediterranean coasts do as well, if not better, in Sochi as in their native habitats. This coastal strip has excellent health resorts. The valley of the Matsesta River, gem of the Sochi resort area, is noted for its hydrogen sulphide springs of exceptional curative value. Vast tea, tobacco, and citrus plantations have been developed in the Caucasian and Asiatic subtropical areas in Soviet times.

WHAT IS THE PHYSIOGRAPHY OF THE COUNTRY LIKE?

An almost solid belt of high mountain ranges stretches along the southwestern, southern and eastern frontiers of the Soviet Union. It consists of the Carpathians, the mountains of sunny Crimea very much favoured by hikers and climbers, the majestic Caucasian mountains, the formidable ranges of Central Asia, the melancholy craggy peaks of south and northeastern Siberia and the rugged chaos of the mountainous areas of the Far East.

Nearly half of the territory of the Soviet Union consists of plateaus and mountain ranges. The Central Siberian Plateau alone, stretching eastward from the Yenisei to the Lena, is equal to half the area of Western Europe.

There is a marked contrast in altitudes. The highest point, Peak Communism in the Pamirs, is 7,495 metres above sea level, while the lowest section of the Karagie dry depression, on the Mangyshlak Peninsula in the Caspian Sea, is 132 metres below sea level.

WHAT ARE THE HIGHEST MOUNTAINS IN THE USSR?

There are 11 peaks rising more than 3,000 metres above sea level. They are:

Communism Peak—7,495 metres (Pamir Mts.);
Pobeda Peak—7,439 metres (Tien Shan Mts.);
Lenin Peak—7,134 metres (Trans-Alai Range);
Khan-Tengri Peak—6,995 metres (Tien Shan Mts.);
Elbrus—5,633 metres (Caucasus Mts.);
Dikh-Tau—5,198 metres (Caucasus Mts.);
Kazbek—5,047 metres (Caucasus Mts.);
Belukha—4,506 metres (Altai Mts.);
Aragats—4,095 metres (Caucasus Mts.);
Munku-Sardyk—3,491 metres (Sayan Mts.);
Pobeda—3,147 metres (Chersky Range).

HOW MANY RIVERS ARE THERE IN THE USSR?

The Soviet Union has about 150,000 rivers of 10 km or longer. Their total length is more than 3,000,000 km of which upwards of 500,000 km are navigable or suitable for timber rafting.

The Soviet Union has the greatest amount of water and waterpower resources. It accounts for 11.4 per cent of the world's waterpower resources. In length and drainage area, and in the volume of flow, many of the Soviet Union's rivers are among the largest in the world such as, for example, the Lena, 4,270 km; the Volga, 3,690 km; the Ob, 3,680 km; the Irtysh, 4,422 km; the Yenisei, 3,350 km; the Amur, 2,846 km; the Kolyma, 2,600 km; the Ural, 2,534 km; the Dnieper, 2,285 km; the Olenek, 2,162 km; the Don, 1,970 km; and the Angara, 1,830 km.

HOW MANY LAKES ARE THERE IN THE USSR?

Nineteen of the more than 250,000 lakes occupy an area of more than 1,000 sq. km. Four of them (Aral, Baikal, Balkhash and Ladoga) cover an area of more than 15,000 sq. km each.

Most of the lakes are situated in the northwestern area of the European part of the country and in Western Siberia. The majority are fresh-water lakes abounding in fish.

Lake Baikal, in Eastern Siberia, is most unusual. It is the largest fresh-water lake in Asia and Europe, and the deepest in the world. It has been calculated that Baikal could hold all the water of the Baltic Sea. It is 636 km long, 79 km wide and has an area of 31,500 sq. km. The maximum depth is 1,620 metres. On an average Lake Baikal is 453 metres above sea level. More than 300 rivers and streams flow into this lake, but only one flows out of it, the broad, deep Angara. The lake's animal life is extremely varied. There are about 1,000 species, three-quarters of them being indigenous to this lake.

The most notable salt lake is Baskunchak, in the Astrakhan Region, east of the Volga. It is fed by a great number of salt springs and has practically inexhaustible reserves of common salt. Salt extraction carried on here for more than a century, has hardly made a dent in the reserves. Baskunchak has long been called «Russia's saltcellar.» A scientist has calculated that this «saltcellar» has enough salt to supply the world for a thousand years.

ARE THERE ANY DESERTS?

Deserts and semi-deserts occupy nearly one-sixth of the country. All along the Arctic shores stretches the treeless tundra wilderness—vast bare expanses of permafrost-bound land livened only by the short northern summer when it is covered with green moss and shiny pools of melted ice and snow in the marshes. A vast Asian desert region runs eastward from the Caspian, taking in the southern districts of Kazakhstan, some areas of Turkmenia, Uzbekistan, Tajikistan, and Kirghizia. The climate here is markedly continental. Mean July temperature is $\div 25^{\circ}$ — $\div 30^{\circ}$ C, which is higher than at the Equator. In January the mean tempe-

perature is minus 16° C. Precipitation in the deserts usually amounts to less than 250 mm a year.

For centuries the Turkmens, Kazakhs, Uzbeks, Tajiks and Kirghiz waged a grim struggle against the desert. At the cost of tremendous effort they irrigated small areas and built up oases. But the sands advanced inexorably, threatening to engulf the fruits of their labour. Only in Soviet times was a comprehensive scheme of desert reclamation drawn up and the construction of large-scale irrigation systems with numerous canals begun.

In the past 20 years major irrigation canals—actually sizable man-made rivers—have been built in the Kara Kum Desert, the Hungry Steppe, the Ferghana Valley, the Vakhsh River Valley in Tajikistan, on the Zeravshan River in Uzbekistan, on the Atrek and Murgab in Turkmenia, and on the Chu River in Kirghizia.

The big navigable 815-km Kara Kum Canal, still under construction, now carries water from the Amu Darya River to Ashkhabad, the capital of Turkmenia. Today it provides water for 160,000 hectares of new farmland including 60,000 used for cotton growing. By 1970 it will supply water to 120,000 hectares more in the operating zone of the canal and 90,000 in the zone still under construction. When completed the canal will be 1,300 km long. One branch will reach the shore of the Caspian near the town of Krasnovodsk and the other will run southward, to the Turkmenian subtropics. This will be the longest gravity-flow shipping canal in the world. It will be possible to reclaim more than one and a half million hectares of desert land for crops and five million hectares for pastures. The canal will provide water for areas where oil and gas extraction industries are rapidly developing. It will also serve as a waterway from Central Asia to the Caspian Sea where it will connect with the Black, Baltic and White seas.

ARE THERE ANY VOLCANOES?

There are about 60 active volcanoes on the Kamchatka Peninsula and the Kuril Islands. The biggest, Klyuchevskaya Sopka, rises to a height of 4,750 metres and has a crater with a diameter of about 500 metres.

Klyuchevskaya Sopka has erupted 50 times in the past 260 years.

ARE THERE MAN-MADE SEAS IN THE USSR?

There are about 50, covering some 70,000 sq. km altogether. Among the best-known of these man-made lakes are Rybinsk, Gorky, Kuibyshev and Volgograd on the Volga, Lake Kakhovka and Lake Kremenchug on the Dnieper, and Lake Tsimlyanskoye on the Don.

Large hydrotechnical construction is proceeding on an ever-increasing scale. Big reservoirs are being created on Siberian rivers. The reservoir of the Krasnoyarskaya hydroelectric station will cover an area of 2,000 sq. km and have a capacity of 73 thousand million cu. m. Ten large reservoirs with a total capacity of 50 thousand million cu. m. will be built on the Amu Darya and Syr Darya, the main waterways in Central Asia, and their tributaries. In 1966-70 the reclaimed area will increase by one million hectares and by another 1.5 million hectares within the next five years.

The largest reservoir is Lake Bratsk, on the Angara River in Siberia. It is more than 600 km-long, has an average width of 25 km and is 100 metres deep in places. This is the biggest reservoir in the world.

WHAT ARE THE MAIN SHIPPING CANALS?

There are still not enough of them for a country the size of the Soviet Union, and construction of such canals, which are used for irrigation purposes as well, goes on all the time. Of great economic importance are the White Sea-Baltic Canal, opened for traffic in 1933, a 227 km link between the White Sea and Lake Onega which shortens the water route from Leningrad to the White Sea by 4,000 km; the 128 km Moscow Canal, which linked up the Volga and Moskva rivers and solved the Soviet capital's water supply problem; the 101 km Volga-Don Canal, inaugurated in 1952, which provides a short water route between the Black and Caspian seas; the North Crimean Canal, which is still under construction, opened in October 1963, brings the waters of the Dnieper to the drought-afflicted Crimean steppes. When completed it will be 400 km long.

In July 1964 the first ships navigated the 361 km Volga-Baltic Canal, the longest canal in the world. The newly commissioned canal links five seas—the White, Baltic, Caspian, Black seas and the Sea of Azov—into a single deep inland waterway. As a result the waterway from the Baltic to the Black Sea is half the length of the sea route around Europe.

WHAT ARE THE TIMBER RESOURCES?

Forests cover about 12,000,000 sq. km, or nearly half the area of the Soviet Union. The Soviet Union has one-third of the world's forestland. About 8,400,000 sq. km of forest track is available for exploitation and timber reserves are estimated at 80,000 million cubic metres. The annual increase of nearly 800,000,000 cubic metres in timber reserves is sufficient to meet the requirements of all countries.

The forests extend from the Baltic Sea in the west to the Pacific in the east gradually turning into forest-tundra in the north and into forest-steppe in the south.

North-European and Siberian coniferous forest (taiga) stretches for hundreds of thousands of kilometres. The chief species here are larch, pine, fir, silver-fir, cedar.

In the south of the European part and in the Far East oak, linden, maple, ash, hornbeam, fir and pine are most common.

In the south, with its broad, rolling fields, there are forest tracts along the rivers. The slopes of the Caucasus are clad in wonderful beech, oak, fir and silver-fir forests. Thickets of hardy saksaul grow in the steppe and desert districts, while the mountains of Central Asia are noted for their groves of juniper, Tien Shan fir and the only walnut forests in the world.

The economic importance of the forests is tremendous. The Soviet Union produces more timber than any other country. In 1965 it stored about 376,000,000 cubic metres, 276,000,000 of the amount being commercial timber.

The Soviet Union exports a considerable share of its commercial timber output.

WHAT ABOUT ANIMAL AND PLANT LIFE IN THE USSR?

About 17,000 species of plants grow in the USSR, nearly half of all known varieties of higher plant life (except mosses).

There is an extreme diversity of animal life. In the north one finds seals, polar bears, walruses, wolves, polar foxes, ermine, white hares and reindeer. The rookeries of two of the world's three remaining colonies of fur seals are on Soviet islands in the Pacific Ocean.

The forest zone is inhabited by the brown bear, lynx, fox, glutton, sable, squirrel, chipmuck, kolinsky, wild bear, marten, Caucasian stag and roe; tiger and leopard are found in the Ussuri taiga in the Soviet Far East; hare, bustard, saiga, deer, tiger, cheetah, hyena inhabit the southern steppe and deserts; there is red deer, moufflon, roe, chamois, aurochs in the Caucasus; red wolf, ermine, ibex, snow leopard in the mountains of Middle Asia. The most important from a commercial point of view are the fur-bearing animals (squirrel, musk-rat, sable, polar fox, mink). The Soviet Union ranks first in the quantity, variety and value of its furs. An international fur auction is held in Leningrad twice a year.

WHAT ARE THE MOST IMPORTANT FOOD FISH?

There are about 1,500 species of fish in the lakes, rivers and seas of the Soviet Union. About 250 species are important from a commercial point of view.

The fish caught in the northern rivers include the Siberian sturgeon, sterlet, salmon, white salmon, sig, grayling, perch, burbot, carp, bream, stickleback, crucian, pike-perch, sheat-fish; in northern seas herring, cod, bass, flat-fish, navaga; in the Baltic Sea sturgeon, sprat, cod, eel, lamprey, white fish. In the Far Eastern waters there is salmon, Siberian salmon, humpback salmon, perch, halibut, herring, flat-fish, grey mullet, cod. The southern rivers yield sterlet, carp, crucian, bream, pike-perch, roach, sheat-fish. The Black Sea abounds in grey mullet, plaice, goby, pike-perch, sturgeon, mackerel, scad. The Caspian

Sea is inhabited by vobla, sardelle, beluga, sturgeon, salmon, sevruga.

The famous Russian caviar is obtained from the beluga, sturgeon and sevruga, all of them Caspian fish.

The Soviet fishing fleet is now one of the biggest, up-to-date fleets in the world. During the past fifteen years the number of vessels has doubled and engine power quadrupled.

Aside from off-shore fishing Soviet trawlers go out to deep-sea fisheries in the Atlantic, Indian, Pacific oceans and in the Arctic and Antarctic. The Soviet Union ranks third in the world in the amount of fish caught. The Soviet Union's 1966 catch, including sea animals, amounted to 6 million tons. In 1970 the catch is planned to reach 8.5—9 million tons.

WHAT IS THE MINERAL WEALTH IN THE USSR?

The USSR has deposits of all minerals found in the earth's crust. The supply is quite adequate to take care of the needs of the expanding national economy.

The Soviet Union has the greatest known reserves of 13 of the 16 most important minerals, including copper, lead, zinc, nickel, bauxite, tungsten, mercury and sulphur, etc.

Of the known world reserves the Soviet Union accounts for:

- 41 per cent of the iron ore;
- 54 per cent of the potassium salts;
- 57 per cent of the coal;
- 60 per cent of the peat;
- 88 per cent of the manganese.

The USSR has the biggest reserves of oil, natural gas, platinum, and considerable reserves of gold and other noble metals.

In Soviet times many deposits of various kinds of minerals have been discovered, giving rise to new towns and new industries. During 1959-65 more than 700 oil- and gas-bearing fields, and deposits of iron ore, chromites, copper, lead, zinc, nickel and gold were discovered, 227 rich oil and gas fields were developed, ore refineries and mines were built; exploitation of 128 coal-fields, 175 oil and gas-fields and 280 gold-fields began.

Discovery of diamonds in post-war years has given rise to a Soviet diamond industry.

Although mineral reserves will suffice for many years to come, geologists are busy seeking industrial oil and gas-bearing fields in the European part of the Soviet Union.

WHAT ARE THE URALS NOTED FOR?

This ancient mountain range that has been eroded by time and the elements is a unique storehouse of iron ore and manganese, copper and chromium, nickel and bauxite, gold and platinum, oil and rock crystal. Ural semi-precious stones are world famous. Today, as for generations past, Ural emeralds, alexandrite, aquamarine, topaz, amethyst, marble, malachite and jasper are fashioned by skilled craftsmen into articles of lasting beauty.

The Urals are called the foundry of the Soviet Union. A large-scale industrial complex utilising the wealth of natural resources has been built up there.

WHAT ARE THE MAIN WILDLIFE PRESERVES IN THE COUNTRY?

The USSR has more than 80 preserves, situated in different geographical zones, accounting for the main species of animal and plant life. Their natural riches are employed for scientific research in the interest of the national economy.

The Pechora-Ilych Preserve covers 714,300 hectares along the northern reaches of the Pechora River, on the territory of the Komi Autonomous Republic, in the northern Urals. It was established in 1930 to aid in the preservation and study of typical sections of the central and northern coniferous forest belt (taiga) and also of the food, fish and game animals inhabiting the northern regions of the European part of the USSR.

Domestication of the elk is a special project of the preserve.

The Belovezh Forest, a state preserve of the USSR since 1940, covers 74,200 hectares in Brest and Grodno regions, in Byelorussia. It is a sanctuary for the study and propagation of aurochs, the European deer, roe, wild boar and elk, and a

nature reserve for the conservation and study of the coniferous and broad-leaved forests of the West European type.

The Astrakhan Preserve covers 42,500 hectares in the delta of the Volga River. It was established in 1919 as a sanctuary to protect the nesting and moulting places of water fowl and also their resting places during transmigration, to conserve spawning places, and also to study the evolution of the Volga delta related to changes in its hydrological regimen.

The Barguzin Preserve covers 248,200 hectares along the eastern shore of Lake Baikal and in the Barguzin Range. It was established in 1926 to preserve and permit a study of the important Barguzin sable and Siberian coniferous forests.

The Ilmen Preserve covers 32,000 hectares on the eastern slopes of the southern Urals. It was established in 1920 to conserve and permit a study of minerals and mountain rocks, as well as the flora and fauna of the Ilmen Hills, which are typical of the southern Urals. The South Urals Nature Museum and a research laboratory have been set up in the preserve. More than 145 minerals have been discovered here; over 30 of them had never been found anywhere else in the world.

The Voronezh Preserve covers 30,800 hectares. It was established in 1922 to breed beavers.

There is a group of forest preserves where research is done on trees, planting of forests and reforestation and the natural and artificial growth and propagation of forest wildlife in various geographic and climatic regions. Among the best known are the Caucasian, Lagodekh, Zakatala and Teberda mountain forest preserves in the Caucasus, the Sikhote-Alin and Kronotsk forest preserves in the Soviet Far East, and the Kursk Preserve, the only virgin steppe preserve in Europe.

HOW IS NATURE CONSERVATION CARRIED OUT?

Numerous public organisations and government institutions engage in nature conservation.

Legislation covers a wide range of nature conservation measures, including restrictions on the utilisation of forests and on hunting certain species of animals, fish and birds.

Poachers and local officials who, through mismanagement, cause harm to natural riches, are liable for damages. Reforestation is carried out in felling areas.

Conservation and protection of forests and fish is looked after by special state inspection bodies. They are aided by various public organisations, primarily by hunting and fishing clubs.

The government allots funds for the establishment of preserves and hatcheries, for the propagation and spread of the most important species of game animals and food fish.

The sweeping construction of hydropower stations and consequent damming of rivers raise the problem of protection of the migratory fish. There are still not enough fish ladders and passages in dams to solve the problem. Artificial breeding of rare fish is given particular attention. By law fish hatcheries must be set up in new reservoirs when rivers are dammed. A long-term master plan for comprehensive utilisation and protection of water resources for the next 20 years is being drawn up. It also provides measures for the protection and breeding of fish.

The following data on reforestation denotes the efficient use made of natural resources: in pre-revolutionary Russia 891,000 hectares of forest were planted in 70 years (between 1844 and 1914). By contrast, in 48 Soviet years (1917-65) over 15,000,000 hectares were planted. Under the current Five-Year Plan (1966-70) reforestation will cover an area of 9,000,000 hectares.

Animals that had become practically extinct before the Revolution have increased greatly in number. There are 1,500,000 saigas, 900,000 wild boars, 757,000 elks, 400,000 northern reindeer, 300,000 kabargis, 300,000 Siberian goats and 40,000 beavers.

Social and State System

WHAT PART DID THE OCTOBER REVOLUTION PLAY IN RUSSIAN HISTORY?

Up to February 1917 Russia was one of the most reactionary and despotic monarchies in the world. With its support the capitalists and landowners, who owned the bulk of the country's wealth, ruthlessly exploited the workers and peasants. It was an economically backward country where the great majority lived in dire straits.

World War I, in which Russia sustained heavy losses, aggravated the sufferings of the working people. A revolutionary situation developed in the country leading, in February 1917, to a popular uprising. Nicholas II was compelled to abdicate. A bourgeois Provisional Government took over. Simultaneously, working people all over the country set up governing bodies called Soviets.

It soon became obvious that the Provisional Government was pursuing the same reactionary policy as the tsarist government. The workers and peasants, led by the Communist Party, began to lay the groundwork for another revo-

lution, a socialist revolution, to overthrow the rule of the capitalists and landowners and transfer all power to the people and their new bodies, the Soviets.

The revolution began in the Russian capital Petrograd, now Leningrad, on October 25, 1917 (November 7, New Calendar), under the direct guidance of Vladimir Lenin, leader of the Communists. The workers and soldiers rose up in arms, overthrew the Provisional Government, and transferred power to the Second All-Russian Congress of Soviets, then in session in Petrograd.

The Congress proclaimed Russia a Soviet Socialist Republic and announced the transfer of state power to the Soviets. It formed a Council of People's Commissars, the first workers' and peasants' government in the world. The working people had come to power.

From the very outset, the truly popular character of the new government made itself felt. The Congress adopted a Decree on Peace in which it urged the belligerents to stop the war at once and conclude a just peace. It turned over the lands of the tsar and the landowners to the peasants for their use free of charge in perpetuity. It nationalised the banks, railways and big industrial enterprises, making them the property of the whole people.

The revolution abolished class oppression and the exploitation of man by man, and smashed the chains of national oppression; it proclaimed, and guaranteed, the right of each nation to self-determination, including the right to secede. All working people were granted civil liberties. Women were emancipated and given equal rights for the first time in history.

The October Revolution played an exceptional part in the history of the country. It tore Russia away from the capitalist system and ushered in the world's most progressive social system. It enabled Russia to overcome its age-old backwardness and become an advanced and powerful socialist country.

WHAT IS THE INTERNATIONAL SIGNIFICANCE OF THE OCTOBER REVOLUTION?

The October Socialist Revolution led to the establishment of two opposed social systems in the world. By giving rise to the world's first socialist state the Revolution ushered in a new era in the history of mankind, the era of transition from capitalism to socialism and communism. It accelerated the march of world history in the direction of social progress and the triumph of humanism.

The October Revolution drew the main forces of the nation, the working people, into the making of history, and demonstrated that they were capable of organising society far better than the propertied classes, which had regarded themselves as «irreplaceable» at the helm of state.

Such a major event of our time as the rise of the system of socialist states that now embraces about one-third of the world's population can be traced directly to the October Revolution. The experience of the October Revolution, including experience in solving the national problem, inspired the peoples of the colonies and dependent countries in their fight for emancipation.

Another aspect of the October Revolution which is of world-wide importance is that it was the first revolution in history to give the people the material requisites for building a secure life in addition to giving them political rights. The state and the society that arose in Russia as a result of the October Revolution set an example of how to promote the welfare and happiness of the ordinary citizen. It encouraged the working people in other countries in their fight for their rights.

The October Revolution proclaimed new relations between nations, relations of peace and businesslike cooperation. In the Soviet Union and the other socialist countries mankind has acquired a reliable support in its efforts to do away with predatory wars and achieve universal peace and a happy future.

WHAT IS SOCIALISM?

Socialism is a system based on public ownership of the means of production, hence there are no exploiting classes, no exploitation of man by man. There is social equality

and all power belongs to the working people. Socialism is based on the principle: «From each according to his ability, to each according to his work, its quantity and quality.»

Public ownership of the means of production makes it possible to develop the national economy under a single economic plan, ensure an uninterrupted and speedy growth of the productive forces, distribute the national income in the interests of all the working people and realise the main objective of socialism—meeting to an ever greater extent the growing material and spiritual requirements of all members of society.

Socialism guarantees real freedom of the individual. It is labour alone that determines man's position in socialist society. The Soviet socialist system completely eliminates national oppression and establishes equality of all peoples and nationalities. It grants women equal rights with men both in the political and social spheres. It guarantees equal pay for equal work to everyone, irrespective of sex, nationality and race. It grants the citizens freedom of speech and the press, freedom of assembly, freedom of forming public organisations, and freedom of conscience, religious beliefs and the right to elect and be elected to any government body. It ensures every citizen the right to work, rest and recreation, free education and medical treatment, to maintenance in old age, in case of illness or disability. Granting the citizens all political freedoms and social rights, socialism creates all the requisites for the free and harmonious development of the individual.

As socialism develops it reaches its supreme stage—communism. The building of communism has today become the Soviet people's immediate task.

WHAT IS COMMUNISM?

Communism is a classless social system based on ownership of the means of production by the entire people and on complete social equality. This is a society where an all-round development of the individual becomes a reality, where the productive forces grow on the basis of constantly developing science and technology; a society in which public wealth becomes an abundance, all of which provide

a basis for the realisation of the great principle: «From each according to his ability, to each according to his needs.»

The social and economic differences between town and countryside will disappear under communism, along with the differences between manual labour and brain work. The character of labour will change, for it will be mechanised and automatised to the maximum and will require of every worker profound knowledge and constant intellectual development.

The unprecedented level in the development of the productive forces will ensure under communism an abundance of material and spiritual benefits and a new form of distribution according to needs. Every individual will receive from society everything he needs, irrespective of his social status. Naturally, what is meant are normal, reasonable requirements, no matter how diverse, and not some ridiculous whims. Even today there are rational and well-founded criteria of human requirements, of the family's need for food, clothes, dwelling, articles of domestic utility and spiritual benefits. However, socialism at its present stage is still unable to meet all the needs fully.

It is the objective of communism to ensure continuous progress in social development, to provide every individual with material and cultural benefits according to his growing requirements, needs and tastes.

The realisation of the communist principle of distribution according to needs will change people's attitude to labour. It will cease to be a means of making money, but will become a voluntary, conscious, inner requirement. It will also free human relationships of all the petty, self-centred desires, make the individual really free in any sphere of human endeavour. This will create boundless possibilities for a harmonious development of every person.

Harmonious relationships will develop between the individual and society on the basis of identity of social and personal interests. The state will be replaced by a system of communist self-government of society. The managing bodies in the field of economy and culture will lose their political character. Such social institutions as the court, police, state security bodies and army will disappear.

Legal compulsion and regulation of the life of society will give way to simple moral standards and rules of social community, the observation of which will become natural.

Socialism and communism are associated with peace. Therefore it is a major task of the Soviet Union and other socialist countries to ensure peace. Communist ideas are winning over the minds and hearts of the popular masses, and not by means of war but by setting a convincing example of a higher organisation of society and by creating all possibilities for happiness and prosperity.

WHEN AND HOW WAS THE UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS (USSR) FORMED?

After the victory of the October Revolution Russia was proclaimed a Soviet Republic.

The Soviet socialist state was the first in history to grant complete freedom to all the oppressed peoples and nationalities immediately after it came into being. The Declaration of Rights of the Peoples of Russia, published on November 16, 1917, proclaimed: equality and sovereignty of the peoples of Russia; the right to self-determination, up to secession and setting up of an independent state; cancellation of all national and religious privileges and limitations; free development of national minorities and ethnic groups inhabiting the country.

These principles were not just proclaimed but consistently implemented.

The following independent Soviet Republics arose: the Russian Federation, in November 1917; the Ukrainian Republic, in December 1917; the Byelorussian, in January 1919; the Azerbaijan, in April 1920; the Armenian, in November 1920; the Georgian, in February 1921. In March 1922 the Azerbaijan, Armenian and Georgian Republics united to form the Transcaucasian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic. Soviet Republics were formed in Central Asia and in the Far Eastern regions of the country. A number of Autonomous Republics were formed within the Russian Federation.

Finland, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Poland seceded from Russia becoming independent states.

As the young independent Soviet Republics fought against internal counter-revolutionaries and foreign invaders, as they built their economies, they concluded a military, economic and diplomatic union. It became clear that it

was much more advantageous to unite efforts and set up one Soviet State. The initiative in forming a single federative state was voiced by the Transcaucasian Republic and supported by all the other Soviet Republics.

«We want a voluntary union of nations,» Lenin said, «a union that would permit no oppression of one nation over another, a union based on complete trust, on a clear realisation of fraternal unity, on a fully voluntary agreement.»

In December 1922, congresses of Soviets were held in the Ukrainian, Byelorussian, Transcaucasian and Russian Republics, which approved of the idea of a voluntary union and the forming of a single state—the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics—the USSR. The Republican congresses of Soviets elected their delegations, which were entrusted with concluding of an agreement on the setting up of the USSR.

The Congress opened in Moscow on December 30, 1922. It considered and approved the Declaration and Treaty on the Formation of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

At first it was joined by the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic, the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic, the Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic and the Transcaucasian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic. Later the Central Asian Soviet Republics joined the Union.

In 1940 the struggle of the working people of Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia for their rights led to the victory of the new system. These countries proclaimed themselves Soviet Republics and, at their request, were admitted to the USSR.

The USSR today consists of 15 Union Republics: the Russian, Ukrainian, Byelorussian, Uzbek, Kazakh, Georgian, Azerbaijan, Lithuanian, Moldavian, Latvian, Kirghiz, Tajik, Armenian, Turkmen and Estonian Soviet Socialist Republics.

WHEN WAS THE FIRST CONSTITUTION OF THE USSR ADOPTED?

In January 1918 the Third All-Russian Congress of Soviets of Workers', Soldiers' and Peasants' Deputies adopted the Declaration on the Rights of the Working and Exploited People. The Declaration gave legislative embodiment

to the gains of the October Revolution and proclaimed the main principles and aims of the socialist state.

The Declaration stated that the main aim of the Soviet system was to put an end to the exploitation of man by man and completely eliminate the division of society into classes. It proclaimed Russia a federative republic, abolished private ownership of land, and approved decrees on workers' control, the establishment of a Supreme National Economic Council, the nationalisation of the banks. It proclaimed the fundamental principles of Soviet foreign policy—peace, the abrogation of secret treaties, and respect for the national sovereignty of all peoples.

The principles of the Declaration were the basis of the first Constitution of the USSR, which was adopted on January 31, 1924, at the Second Congress of Soviets of the USSR.

The present Constitution was adopted on December 5, 1936, by the Extraordinary Eighth Congress of Soviets of the USSR after a nation-wide discussion lasting more than five months. December 5, Constitution Day, is now a public holiday.

At present a commission set up by the Supreme Soviet of the USSR is drafting a new Constitution.

WHAT ARE THE DISTINGUISHING FEATURES OF THE SOVIET CONSTITUTION?

One feature of the Constitution of the USSR is consistent democracy. There is no restriction of the rights of citizens on the basis of sex, race or nationality, education, property status. All citizens have an equal right to work, education, rest and leisure, and maintenance in old age. All enjoy freedom of speech and freedom of the press, freedom of assembly and meetings and freedom to unite in public organisations.

All power in the USSR belongs to the urban and rural working people as represented by the Soviets of Working

People's Deputies which constitute the political foundation of the state. The economic foundation of the USSR is the socialist system of economy and public ownership of the means of production.

The Constitution of the USSR does not limit itself to merely recording the rights of citizens but lays emphasis on guaranteeing these rights, on ways of implementing them. For example, the right of citizens to work is ensured by planned steady economic expansion, by the construction of new factories and mills, which guarantees full employment. The right to rest and leisure is ensured by annual paid holidays and the provision of holiday homes, sanatoriums and health resorts for the working people. The right to material security in old age, and also in case of sickness, is ensured by the state system of social insurance and free medical service for all.

WHAT ARE THE CLASSES THAT COMPRISE SOVIET SOCIETY?

The 1917 October Revolution eliminated the exploiting classes. Soviet society consists of two working classes today, workers and farmers, and also of working intelligentsia.

The pre-revolutionary working class in Russia, just as in any other capitalist country, consisted of proletarians, i. e., people deprived of any means of production and forced to obtain the means of subsistence by selling their labour. The Soviet working class is an entirely new class for workers under socialism do not sell their labour to private capitalist businessmen, but work at plants and factories which constitute the public property.

The working class grows as production expands. Its role becomes decisive both in the solution of economic problems and in the country's socio-political affairs and in social progress. The working class is the main social force in the Soviet Union's advance to communism.

Old Russia's peasantry was actually a class of petty producers, doomed for the most part to poverty and ruin. The peasants of today's Russia—Soviet farmers—are people united in big collective farms, possessing all the modern means of agricultural production and making use of the latest scientific and technical achievements. Between 1959 and 1965 the number of farmers with a secondary education grew from 27 per cent to 31 per cent. The collective farmers' incomes have gone up immeasurably along with their cultural level and social consciousness.

The intelligentsia has also changed. Before the Revolution intellectuals made up a small social group mostly of well-to-do people, which served the interests of the upper crust. There were over 13 million specialists with a secondary or higher education employed in the national economy in 1966, whereas in 1926 there were only a little more than 500,000. Intellectuals make up a large and still growing section of the population. An overwhelming majority of them come from workers' and farmers' families. Soviet intellectuals contribute their work and knowledge to the whole people.

The Soviet people are closely bound by the identity of their ideas, interests and goals. Being a society of equal toilers, Soviet society is marked by firm social and political unity. There is no soil for social conflicts.

WHAT DOES «PROPERTY OF THE WHOLE PEOPLE» MEAN?

Under the Soviet system the property of the whole people is at the same time state property, for at the present stage, society as a whole, to which the means of production belong, is represented by the state.

State property, that is, property belonging to the whole people, includes the land, its mineral wealth, waters, forests, industrial enterprises (factories, mills, mines) and their output, rail, water and air transport, large state-organised agricultural enterprises (state farms) and their output, technical repair stations, banks, communications, municipal, cultural and other enterprises and institutions (hospitals, clinics, holiday homes, sanatoriums, schools, colleges, theatres), the bulk of the housing fund in the cities and industrial localities. More than 90 per cent of all production facilities are state property.

As Soviet society advances to communism, the property of the whole people in the USSR will steadily grow and become more and more consolidated. Under communism it will become the sole form of ownership of the means of production.

WHAT IS MEANT BY COOPERATIVE AND COLLECTIVE FARM PROPERTY?

This is property of separate working people's collectives united in various types of cooperatives for joint endeavour: agricultural producer cooperatives (collective farms), housing or other cooperatives.

Like the property of the whole people (state property), cooperative and collective farm (group) property serves the interests of the working people. It covers enterprises of the collective farms and cooperative organisations, with their livestock, buildings, implements, and output. As communist society is built the level of socialisation of cooperative and collective farm (group) property will rise and, in the long run, it will merge with the property of the whole people (state property). By now there is large-scale inter-collective farm property jointly owned by several collective farms: power stations, construction enterprises, factories for processing farm product and joint collective farm-state property.

WHAT ARE THE ADVANTAGES OF PUBLIC OWNERSHIP OF THE MEANS OF PRODUCTION?

It eliminates the causes of exploitation of man by man. It makes it possible to direct the development of all production in the interests of the working people, carry out both current and long-range planning, and determine ahead of time what has to be produced, and in what amounts, what new factories, mills, mines and electric power stations must be built, the size and type of labour force to be trained, what kind of schools and colleges have to be built, how many new dwellings should be erected and where.

Economic planning based on public ownership of the means of production makes for rational utilisation of the country's resources and balanced economic development, thereby excluding discord and anarchy in production and eliminating economic crises and unemployment.

Public ownership makes it possible quickly to accumulate funds for the further development of all branches of the economy. That is why the Soviet Union has such high rates of growth of industrial output. National revenue benefits all the people, not just individuals.

WHO OWNS THE LAND?

Like all natural wealth, land is the property of the people. As the sole owner of land, the Soviet state ensures preservation of the country's natural riches, the most effective utilisation of her mineral resources, forests and waters, increased fertility of farmland.

The land was turned over to the collective farms for their use free of charge and for an unlimited time, that is, in perpetuity. These land rights are strictly protected by law.

The Soviet state provides groups of wage and salary earners with plots of land to be used as collective orchards and vegetable gardens, and individuals with plots on which to build homes or summer cottages. Plots of land are also issued to public organisations (trade unions, cooperatives, youth groups, sports societies) desiring to build holiday homes, sports grounds, parks.

Requests for land on which to build industrial enterprises, railways, towns are satisfied in full measure. Here state ownership of the land fully accords with the interests of the whole of society.

CAN LAND BE BOUGHT AND SOLD?

Land required by a state or cooperative organisation, group of people or an individual is provided by the state free of charge. Naturally, an organisation or citizen acquiring land in that fashion is not permitted to sell it. The transfer of collective farm land to individuals, such as to collective farmers or factory or office workers, to be used to build homes, is also free of charge.

Anyone wishing to sell the summer cottage he has built at his own expense on land given him by the state or a collective farm is allowed to do so. But only the cottage can be sold. The land on which it stands is transferred to the new owner of the cottage free of charge, in the same way as the original owner received it. For the same reason there is no land rent in the USSR.

WHAT IS THE ADMINISTRATIVE-TERRITORIAL DIVISION BASED ON?

The administrative-territorial division has a scientific basis and takes into consideration the following points: the historical peculiarities of the national composition and customs; the territory's economic development; size and density of population; the population's attraction to certain economic centres; direction and type of communications; guarantee of the effective, concrete management of the given territory. The main administrative-territorial units in the USSR are: region, district, town and village. Besides, the Russian Federation, the biggest Union Republic, has territories and national areas.

Every Union Republic settles questions of its administrative-territorial division independently.

WHAT ARE THE RELATIONS AMONG THE PEOPLES INHABITING THE USSR?

There is complete equality of all nationalities in the Soviet Union. All of them have the same opportunities for development. Their relations are based on fraternity, friendship, respect, and willingness to aid one another.

Article 123 of the Constitution says: «Equality of rights of citizens of the USSR, irrespective of their nationality or race, in all spheres of economic, government, cultural, political and other public activity, is an indefeasible law.

Any direct or indirect restriction of the rights of, or, conversely, the establishment of any direct or indirect privileges for, citizens on account of their race or nationality, or any advocacy of racial or national exclusiveness or hatred and contempt, are punishable by law.”

Each nationality has a definite national-state or national-territorial structure, that is, it is either a Union Republic, an Autonomous Republic, an Autonomous Region, or a National Area.

WHAT IS A UNION REPUBLIC?

A Union Republic is an independent, sovereign Soviet socialist state of workers and peasants.

It unites within its boundaries the people which numerically comprise the majority of the native population inhabiting the territory. The name of this people is given to the Republic.

Union Republics differ considerably in territory, population, national composition, and a number of other characteristics. However, they all enjoy equal rights in the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

HOW IS THE SOVEREIGNTY AND EQUALITY OF UNION REPUBLICS GUARANTEED?

Each Union Republic has its own Constitution reflecting the specific features of the Republic.

A Union Republic has its own higher body of state power: its Supreme Soviet, Presidium of the Supreme Soviet, Council of Ministers (the highest body of state administration), Supreme Court, and local bodies of power—Soviets of Working People's Deputies and their executive committees. Each Union Republic has its own legislation system, civil, criminal and labour codes, family law, legal procedure, citizenship, anthem, flag, coat of arms, and capital.

The territory of a Union Republic may not be altered without its consent. Each Union Republic has the right to enter into direct relations with foreign states and to conclude agreements and exchange diplomatic and consular representatives with them, to have its own Republican military formations.

Within its own territory each Union Republic exercises state authority independently. The Supreme Soviet of a Union Republic adopts the Constitution of the Republic and confirms the Constitutions of the Autonomous Republics that are a part of it, and also approves the economic plan and the budget of the Republic. It exercises the right to grant amnesty and pardon citizens who have been convicted by courts of law of the given Republic. It determines the manner of organising the Republican military formations.

Equality of the Union Republics is guaranteed by all Republics taking part in managing the affairs of the federation on equal terms. Each of them has equal representation:

- in the Soviet of Nationalities of the USSR Supreme Soviet: 32 deputies from each Union Republic;

- in the Presidium of the USSR Supreme Soviet which consists of a Chairman and 15 Deputy Chairmen—one from each Union Republic (traditionally they are Chairmen of the Presidiums of the Republican Supreme Soviets);

- in the USSR Council of Ministers, which consists of Chairmen of the Republican Councils of Ministers by virtue of their posts;

- in the USSR Supreme Court made up of Chairmen of the Republican Supreme Courts by virtue of their posts.

Not a single Union Republic has any exclusive privileges or rights.

MAY A UNION REPUBLIC SECEDE FROM THE USSR?

Yes, this right is laid down in the Constitution of the USSR and the Constitutions of all the Union Republics.

WHAT IS AN AUTONOMOUS REPUBLIC?

It is a Soviet socialist national state enjoying political autonomy as part of a Union Republic. The territory is settled by a majority of one of the nationalities inhabiting the respective Union Republic, and the Autonomous Republic is named after that nationality.

An Autonomous Republic has its own Constitution which reflects its national features, and higher bodies of power; its Supreme Soviet, Presidium of the Supreme Soviet, Council of Ministers, Supreme Court, and local administration bodies.

The Autonomous Republic has its territory, the borders of which cannot be changed without its consent. It has its system of courts and its legislation regarding economic and cultural development, its citizenship, its capital, emblem and flag.

Each Autonomous Republic has 11 representatives in the Soviet of Nationalities of the USSR Supreme Soviet and a proportional representation on the basis of common principles in the Supreme Soviet of the Republic of which it is a part. Being part of the Union Republic, the Autonomous Republic does not have the right to secede from the USSR.

The twenty Autonomous Republics (as of 1966) are part of four Union Republics. The Russian Federation has 16: the Bashkir, Buryat, Dagestan, Kabardino-Balkar, Kalmyk, Karelian, Komi, Mari, Mordovian, North Ossetian, Tatar, Tuva, Udmurt, Checheno-Ingush, Chuvash and Yakut Autonomous Republics. In the Azerbaijan Republic there is the Nakhichevan Autonomous Republic. In the Georgian Republic, the Abkhazian and Ajarian Autonomous Republics, and in the Uzbek Republic, the Kara-Kalpak Autonomous Republic.

WHAT IS AN AUTONOMOUS REGION?

It is a national-territorial unit enjoying administrative autonomy for reasons of its peculiar customs and national composition. The Autonomous Region is part of the Union Republic or Territory. The Soviet of Working People's Deputies is its body of state power, while its government is the Soviet's Executive Committee. Each Autonomous Region sends 5 deputies to the Soviet of Nationalities of the USSR Supreme Soviet and has proportional representation on the basis of common principles in the Supreme Soviet of the Republic of which it is a part.

The bodies of state power and administration, the courts and the procurator's office, the schools, cultural and public organisations, and the press use the language of the population of the Autonomous Region.

There were eight Autonomous Regions in the USSR in 1966, five of them in the Russian Federation—the Adygei, Gorny Altai, Jewish, Karachaevo-Cherkess and Khakass; the Nagorny Karabakh Autonomous Region in Azerbaijan; the South Ossetian Autonomous Region in Georgia and the Gorny Badakhshan Autonomous Region in Tajikistan.

It is a national-territorial unit with a certain national composition and national customs. Usually it is a big territory with a small population made up, as a rule, of several nationalities.

There are National Areas only in the Russian Federation and all of them are situated in the North.

Every National Area has one deputy in the Soviet of Nationalities of the USSR Supreme Soviet. As for the deputies to the Supreme Soviet of the Russian Federation, they are elected in the National Areas on the basis of common principles and in proportion to the size of the population.

The National Area is governed by the Regional Soviet of Working People's Deputies and its Executive Committee which is a part of the unified system of local Soviets of the Russian Federation.

The state and administrative bodies, the courts and procurator's office use the language of the nationality comprising the majority of the population of the National Areas. There are ten National Areas: the Agin-Buryat, Chukotka, Evenki, Khanty-Mansi, Komi-Permyak, Koryak, Nenets, Taimyr, Ust-Orda Buryat and Yemalo-Nenets.

CAN A NATIONALITY CHANGE ITS FORM OF AUTONOMY?

Yes, it can. This is borne out by the history of the USSR. The diversity of forms and levels in the development of the national state units in the USSR makes it possible for some nationalities to change their form of autonomy (under certain conditions) for another higher and more practical form. Out of the 16 Autonomous Republics within the Russian Federation eleven used to be Autonomous Regions.

The dynamics of the development of Soviet society, the fraternal assistance of the Soviet peoples and above all, the extensive assistance rendered by the Russian people to the formerly oppressed and backward nationalities of Russia have enabled them to make a great leap in their economic and political development and advance from autonomous units to sovereign Soviet Republics. Six of the 15 Union Republics existing today have come into being as a result of transformation from Autonomous Republics.

Union Republics

WHAT ARE THE UNION REPUBLICS?

In this book of brief answers we can give only the most general information about the Union Republics, constituent members of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

Each Union Republic has its own coat of arms, flag and anthem, which as symbols of statehood reflect the economic distinctions and national features of the Republics.

Take, for example, the coat of arms of the Byelorussian Republic. The hammer and sickle in the rays of the rising sun are encircled by a wreath of ears of rye intertwined with clover and flax. The coat of arms of the Uzbek Republic has a hammer and sickle framed by ears of wheat and cotton stalks with flowers and open cotton bolls. On the coat of arms of the Georgian Republic we see a bluish mountain range, golden ears of grain and grape-clustered vines. Folk melodies resound in the solemn strains of the anthems of the Union Republics. Red, the colour of the USSR flag, predominates in all the national flags. But each flag has its own distinctive colours—blue, green, white. For example,

the azure colour of the Kazakh steppes is banded by strips of red on that Republic's flag.

These are the state symbols of the Union Republics reflecting their peoples' peaceful life of constructive endeavour. And now we present facts, figures and comparisons pertaining to the Union Republics.

THE RUSSIAN SOVIET FEDERATIVE SOCIALIST REPUBLIC (RSFSR)

Formed November 7, 1917; area, 17,075,000 sq. km; population as of January 1, 1967, 127.3 million. Russians 83.3 per cent, Tatars 3.5 per cent, Ukrainians 2.9 per cent, Chuvash 1.2 per cent.

The RSFSR embraces 16 Autonomous Republics, 5 Autonomous Regions and 10 National Areas.

Moscow, the capital, has a population of 6,507,000.

The RSFSR, or Russian Federation, is the biggest of the Union Republics in size and population, and most economically developed. It stretches from the Baltic to the Pacific, from the Arctic Ocean to the Central Asian deserts. Stretching over part of Europe and Asia, RSFSR comprises the most diverse areas.

The RSFSR possesses all the known minerals. Up to recently only diamonds were missing, but even they have now been found in Yakutia.

Eastern Siberia alone has more coal than all the capitalist countries taken together. There are also huge resources of iron ore, copper, manganese, nepheline, tungsten, potash, magnesium, titanium, cobalt, mica, tin, zinc, gold and precious stones.

It contributes four-fifths of machines produced in the Soviet Union, about half of the pig iron, more than half of the steel, rolled stock and coal, over three-quarters of the oil, about two-thirds of the footwear and nearly nine-tenths of the cotton fabrics. The world's biggest hydroelectric

stations have been built on the Volga and the Angara in Siberia. Industry is rapidly developing in the Federation's eastern areas where there are huge raw material reserves and inexhaustible water power resources.

The RSFSR is also a major agricultural area of the USSR. Of about 124 million hectares¹ cultivated in the Federation, grain is grown on over 77.5 million hectares (wheat occupies about 40 million hectares). About half of the cattle, pigs and sheep in the Soviet Union belong to collective and state farms of the Russian Federation.

Industry and agriculture in all the territories and regions, Autonomous Republics and Autonomous Regions of the Russian Federation are developing at a high rate.

Russian culture has won world-wide recognition. The universities and colleges of the Russian Federation, research institutes, theatres and museums enjoy an enviable reputation. The RSFSR has many first-class health resorts situated on the Black Sea coast, in the Caucasian mountains and in other regions catering to several million people annually.

THE UKRAINIAN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

Formed December 25, 1917; area, 601,000 sq. km; population, 45,966,000 as of January 1, 1967. Ukrainians 76.8 per cent, Russians 16.9 per cent, Jews 2 per cent, Poles 0.9 per cent.

Kiev, the capital, has a population of 1,417,000.

The Ukrainian Republic is second in population, after the Russian Federation, and third in size of the Union Republics (after the Russian Federation and the Kazakh Republic). Its lands extend through the forest, mixed forest-steppe and steppe zones, from Transcarpathia to the Don and from marshy Polesye to the azure Black Sea coast.

The Ukrainian Republic is a member of the United Nations.

The Ukrainian Republic suffered heavily during the last war. The nazis killed four and a half million people,

¹ One hectare equals 2.5 acres.

and forcefully carried off more than two million people for slave labour in Germany. Hundreds of cities, towns and urban settlements were destroyed and thousands of villages burned down leaving ten million people without homes. By 1950 Ukrainian industry had already surpassed the pre-war level and now the industrial output of the Ukraine is greater than the 1940 output of the entire Soviet Union.

The Ukraine is a highly important industrial area and granary of the Soviet Union. The world's biggest blast furnaces and open-hearth furnaces have been built in the Ukraine. The Republic has unique coal, steel, coke and chemical enterprises, producing metallurgical equipment, the latest machine tools, turbines, transformers, walking excavators, electric locomotives, generators, measuring instruments, and travelling cranes.

The Ukraine's nine-day output of industrial goods exceeds that for the whole of 1913.

The Ukraine produces more pig iron than France, Italy and Austria taken together. The Ukraine produces more steel, pig iron and sugar, and mines more iron ore and coal per head of the population than the United States, Britain, France and the Federal Republic of Germany.

In the post-war years alone the Ukraine has built some 2,500 large industrial enterprises. Compared with 1940, output of electricity has grown tenfold. In 1966 the Republic generated over 100,000 million kwh a year. A number of large thermal power stations have been built. A cascade of hydroelectric stations is going up on the Dnieper. The Dnieper, Kakhovka, and Kremenchug stations are operating at full capacity. Two more, the Dneprodzerzhinsk and Kiev stations, have been commissioned and the Kanev station is under construction.

The North Crimean Canal has been built to irrigate hundreds of thousands of hectares in the arid regions of the southern Ukraine. The canal begins at the Kakhovka reservoir on the Dnieper and ends at Kerch on the Crimean Peninsula.

The Ukraine is the second best agricultural area of the Soviet Union. The Republic produces more than a quarter of all the meat and milk in the country and about quarter of the industrial crops. It is the biggest producer of sugar beet in the world.

The Ukraine's nearly 9,500 collective farms and 1,400 state farms grow crops on nearly 34 million hectares of land. As of January 1, 1967, the Republic had 21.9 million head of cattle, 17.8 million pigs and 8.7 million sheep. The Republic is also well known for its melon fields, orchards and Crimean and Transcarpathian vineyards. Fishery is developed on the Black and Asov Sea coasts.

The Ukrainians are an ancient people with a rich culture. Prior to the Revolution the Ukrainian language was not even recognised officially, being considered a Little Russian dialect. The majority of the population was illiterate. Secondary education, and even more so higher education, was inaccessible to children of working people.

General education schools have an attendance of 8.5 million, specialised secondary schools—almost 720,000 and the 132 higher educational establishments—740,000. Eighty thousand specialists graduated from institutes and colleges and 135,000 from specialised secondary technical schools in 1966. In the Ukraine 1.6 per cent of the people are students.

The Ukrainian Academy of Sciences with its numerous institutes and laboratories is a major scientific centre which numbers more than 100,000 scientific workers.

The Republic has 60 theatres, 25 philharmonic societies, 26,000 clubs and cultural centres.

The Ukraine has dozens of publishing houses, which put out over 110 million books annually, including 77.5 million issued in the Ukrainian language. More than 2,500 newspapers with a 13.5 million total circulation are published in the Republic.

THE BYELORUSSIAN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

Formed January 1, 1919; area, 207,600 sq. km; population as of January 1, 1967, 8,744,000; Byelorussians 81.1 per cent, Russians 8.2 per cent, Poles 6.7 per cent, Jews 1.9 per cent, Ukrainians 1.7 per cent.

Minsk, the capital, has a population of 772,000.

Prior to the Revolution, Byelorussia produced for the market only hemp, timber and tar. Now it produces motor vehicles, ball bearings, electric motors, farm machines, TV sets, electric instruments, watches, cameras, pianos, synthetic fibres and furniture. Byelorussia's industrial products rate high on the world market.

The Republic's industrial progress is all the more amazing in view of the colossal destruction wrought by the last war. 209 of its 270 cities and district centres were razed to the ground. The nazis put out of action almost all the 1,700 factories and plants built before the war and carted valuable equipment off to Germany. During the war the Byelorussian people lost more than half their national wealth.

Despite all this Byelorussia, with the help of the fraternal Republics, swiftly recovered its economy. Now its six-day industrial output is equal to the annual output before the Revolution. Per capita output of machine tools is roughly equal to that of the United States and Britain and much greater than in France and Japan. Per capita production of lorries is greater than in Italy; it exceeds the USA and France in tractor production and makes more motorcycles than Britain and the Federal Republic of Germany.

Byelorussia has over 6 million hectares under crops, including 2.9 million hectares of grain. The Republic goes in for dairy farming, livestock breeding, the raising of water fowl, potato, flax and sugar beet production. As of January 1, 1967, there were 5,400,000 head of cattle, 3,600,000 pigs and 800,000 sheep. The network of flax mills, sugar refineries, canneries, meat-packing plants and creameries is being rapidly extended.

Before the Revolution, 82 per cent of the population could not read or write. There were no schools teaching in the Byelorussian language. In 1913 only one book was published in the Byelorussian language.

Byelorussia has over 13,000 general education schools, 122 secondary and specialised secondary schools and 27 higher educational establishments. The percentage of students is 1.2, which is higher than in Japan, France, Belgium, Italy and other developed capitalist countries.

The first Byelorussian theatre was opened in 1920. Now there are 11 professional theatres. The Republic has more than 7,000 libraries with a total of nearly 42 million books

and magazines. One hundred and fifty newspapers are published with a total circulation of 2,900,000.

The Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic is also a member of the United Nations.

THE UZBEK SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

Formed October 27, 1924; area, 449,600 sq. km; population, as of January 1, 1967, 10,896,000; Uzbeks 62.2 per cent, Russians 13.5 per cent, Tatars 5.5 per cent, Kazakhs 4.1 per cent, Tajiks 3.8 per cent, Kara-Kalpaks 2.1 per cent.

Tashkent, the capital, has a population of 1,241,000.

The Kara-Kalpak Autonomous Republic (capital Nukus) is part of the Uzbek Republic.

The Uzbek Soviet Socialist Republic (Uzbekistan) has the largest population and is the most developed of the Central Asian Soviet Republics. It is located in the south-eastern part of the Soviet Union, in the heart of Central Asia.

Uzbekistan is the Soviet Union's main cotton-producing area. In 1966 the harvest came to four million tons of seed cotton, two-thirds of all the seed cotton grown in the USSR, Uzbekistan holds third place in the world for cotton production, after the United States and China.

The Republic is also renowned for its sericulture (it accounts for about half the raw silk produced in the Soviet Union), rice growing (three-fifths of the total crop), livestock raising (first place among the Central Asian Republics).

The Uzbeks are extending the cultivated area and building large irrigation installations. More than 130,000 kilometres of irrigation canals have been built, the biggest of which is the 270-kilometre Great Ferghana Canal. In 1966 construction of the 116-kilometre Central Ferghana Canal was started. It will irrigate 140,000 hectares of land.

Large-scale development of the Hungry Steppe, located between the Samarkand and Tashkent oases, is now underway. Canals have already been dug far into the desert. Cotton fields, orchards, and vineyards have appeared and scores of communities have sprung up on what was once dead

land. Of the 800,000 hectares suitable for irrigation in the Hungry Steppe, 300,000 hectares have already been wrested from the desert.

In the 1966-70 period it is planned to irrigate an additional 500,000 hectares.

The Uzbeks use the waters of the Syr Darya, Chirchik, Zeravshan and other rivers, not only for irrigation but also as a source of cheap electricity. A cascade of 16 automated, remote-control hydropower stations has been erected on the Chirchik. The Farkhad, Kayrak-Kum and other large hydropower stations built after the war supply electric power and irrigate the fields.

Uzbekistan has become a highly industrialised country, with over 70 industries. Uzbekistan mines coal, extracts oil and produces steel and machines. Before the Revolution, Uzbek cotton was processed in the central regions of Russia. Now Uzbekistan has its own highly developed textile industry. Russian spinners and weavers have helped the Uzbeks to master the art of making fabrics. Today the Republic's per capita production of cotton fabrics exceeds that of Britain, France and Japan.

The rich Bukhara-Khiva gas-bearing area, discovered in the Kyzyl-Kum Desert, has turned Uzbekistan into a fuel supplier of country-wide importance. A large gas industry to provide cheap natural fuel to the Central Asian Republics, Kazakhstan and the Urals is being developed here. Uzbekistan-Central Russia gas pipeline, which will be the longest in the world, is under construction. A big goldfield is being developed.

In the past even elementary education was beyond the reach of the indigenous population. Today Uzbekistan has two universities and 30 institutes with an overall attendance of 188,000 students. Soviet Uzbekistan has two and a half times as many students (percentagewise) as Britain and more than three times as many as the Federal Republic of Germany and Italy. It has an Academy of Sciences and 150 research establishments employing 18,000 scientists, including over 300 Doctors of Science and nearly 4,000 with a M. Sc. degree.

An atomic reactor of the Uzbekistan Academy of Sciences, the first in the Soviet East, was commissioned near Tashkent in the autumn of 1959. It is used by Uzbek scientists to study the peaceful uses of atomic energy.

THE KAZAKH SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

Formed August 26, 1920, as an Autonomous Republic within the Russian Federation, and reconstituted as a Union Republic on December 5, 1937; area, 2,715,100 sq. km; population as of January 1, 1967, 12,413,100; Kazakhs 30 per cent, Russians 42.7 per cent, and Ukrainians 8.2 per cent. The share of the indigenous population has declined owing to the large influx of pioneers from the European part of the Soviet Union who have come to develop Kazakhstan's virgin lands.

Alma Ata, the capital, has a population of 653,000.

In size the Kazakh Republic (Kazakhstan) is second only to the Russian Federation. It extends from the Volga to the Altai Mountains and from the Siberian plains to the Central Asian deserts.

27,000 factories, plants, mines and hydropower stations have been built in the Republic in Soviet times; 25 million hectares of land have been ploughed up and cultivated in a few years. Development of the vast virgin land expanses has converted Kazakhstan into one of the biggest grain producers in the Soviet Union. Five hundred large state farms have been set up on the new lands.

Kazakhstan holds second place among the Union Republics in the output of commercial grain, wool and astrakhan skins and third place in meat production. The Republic also grows cotton, sugar beet, rice, sunflower, grapes and fruit.

The Republic has a wealth of minerals. There are more than 2,000 occurrences of non-ferrous metals, including the largest copper ore ones.

The iron and steel, non-ferrous metals, power, chemical, engineering and other key industries are rapidly developing. The scale of Kazakhstan's enterprises today is indicated by the size of the Sokolovo-Sarbai iron ore mines and dressing mills. In 1965 it produced 26.5 million tons of iron ore. Its rated capacity is 30 million tons a year.

In 1966, Kazakhstan generated 21.400 million kwh, ten

times as much electric power as all pre-revolutionary Russia. The huge Ust-Kamenogorsk and Bukhtarma hydropower stations on the Irtysh are in operation and the Yermak thermal station, one of the largest in the world (2.4 million kw), is under construction.

Nature has been generous to Kazakhstan, except for water. A 450-km canal is being dug to increase the water resources of Central Kazakhstan where large-scale industrial construction is in progress. The canal, 40 metres wide and 6-7 metres deep, will carry Irtysh water far into the arid steppes.

In the last 40 years, the number of towns in Kazakhstan has doubled and the number of industrial communities has increased fivefold. The Kazakh settlement of Baikonur, in the heart of the steppes, is world famous. It is from here that the Soviet *Vostok* and *Voskhod* spaceships were launched into outer space.

Kazakhstan has over 10,500 general secondary schools, 179 specialised secondary schools and 41 higher educational institutions.

It has 20 theatres, 5,600 clubs, 6,600 libraries.

The Kazakh Academy of Sciences is a large scientific centre. It has over 160 research institutions with about 20,000 scientific workers.

THE GEORGIAN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

Formed February 25, 1921; area, 69,700 sq. km; population, as of January 1, 1967, 4,611,000; Georgians 64.3 per cent, Armenians 11 per cent, Russians 10.1 per cent, Azerbaijanians 3.8 per cent.

Tbilisi, the capital, has a population of 842,000.

The Georgian Republic includes the Abkhazian Autonomous Republic (capital Sukhumi); the Ajarian Autonomous Republic (Batumi) and the South-Ossetian Autonomous Region (Tskhinvali).

Rugged mountains and modern civilisation, antiquities and new factories, vineyard and tea plantations, many machines both in towns and countryside, the sun-drenched

Black Sea and traditional pensive songs—that is the picture of Georgia today.

This Republic situated in West Transcaucasia on both sides of the Suram range is endowed with a subtropical landscape and rich mineral resources. A humid subtropical zone with ever-green luxuriant vegetation stretches along the Black Sea coast.

The fields, orchards and plantations yield many crops, the main one being tea, first cultivated in Soviet times. Georgia produces 96 per cent of the entire tea crop in the Soviet Union. It also grows almost all the tangerines and lemons. The mountainous Republic is renowned, too, for its grape wines, splendid tobaccos, essential oils and mineral waters.

Georgia has many minerals. East of the ancient city of Kutaisi is the Chiaturi manganese deposits, one of the richest in the world.

The output of Georgian mines and factories is exported to scores of countries. The Republic is known abroad for its high-grade manganese and ferro-alloys and for its mining equipment, chemicals and medicines, fabrics, silk yarn, essential and tung oils. More than 1,000 industrial enterprises have been built here in Soviet times. In 1966 Georgian industrial output was 62 times the pre-revolutionary level and six times the 1940 level.

Equally important has been the Georgian people's progress in education, science and culture. While before the Revolution 50 per cent of the Georgians were illiterate now Georgia has 170 students per 10,000 people, several times as many students as Italy and the FRG. Nearly 81,000 students now attend the Republic's 18 higher educational establishments (before the Revolution there was one with 300 students).

There are 20 theatres in the Republic including a Russian and an Armenian theatre compared with the three it had before the Revolution. Many talented Georgian composers, poets, actors and painters have won popular acclaim. Georgian folk song and dance groups are known far beyond the USSR.

Georgia is also famous as a land of health resorts. Its resorts, located in picturesque spots primarily along the Black Sea coast, have a great number of holiday homes and sanatoriums. Among them are the world renowned Bor-

zhomi, Gagra and Tskhaltubo spas. Hundreds of thousands of people come annually to Georgia for vacation and treatment.

THE AZERBAIJAN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

Formed April 28, 1920; area, 86,600 sq. km.; population, as of January 1, 1967, 4,802,000; Azerbaijanians 67.5 per cent, Russians 13.6 per cent, Armenians 12 per cent.

Baku, the capital, has a population of 1,196,000.

The Azerbaijan Union Republic occupies the eastern part of Transcaucasia facing the Caspian Sea. The greater part of the Republic includes the lowlands of the River Kura and the lower reaches of its tributary, the Araks. The Republic juts out into the Caspian Sea, forming the oil-rich Apsheron Peninsula.

Baku oil gained world renown long ago. Oil derricks have appeared in the basin of the Kura, climbed the foothills of the Greater Caucasus and extended far into the open sea. There, at a distance of 100 kilometres from shore, the only «city on piles» in the world with houses, canteens, a clinic and even a branch of the oil secondary technical school has arisen on artificial «islets» and trestlework extending for many kilometres. About 21 million tons of oil are produced in Azerbaijan annually.

The Republic also manufactures the machinery for oil-prospecting, extraction and refining. Baku turbodrills and electric drills are well known the world over. The chemical industry is developing on the basis of oil and gas. The Republic's refineries are putting out more than 90 different kinds of products.

More than 100 large plants have been built in the Republic since the war, including synthetic rubber factories, a pipe-rolling mill, tyre factory, aluminium works. Sumgait, a new town, has become a large Transcaucasian steel centre.

The Republic has fertile lands and abundant water resources. A new breed of mountain fine-fleece merino sheep has been produced.

Large irrigation systems are under construction in Azerbaijan, particularly in the Kura-Araks lowlands, and the sown areas being extended. Big yields of grain and industrial crops are obtained on the irrigated lands.

Before the Revolution 90 per cent of the population were illiterate. Now 78,000 young folk study in the 11 higher educational institutions (prior to the Revolution there were none).

Hundreds of foreign students, mostly from Asia and Africa, study in Baku, the capital of the Republic. Thousands of Azerbaijanian engineers are now working in the Republic (before the Revolution there were only 12). There are many more schoolchildren than in Iran and Turkey combined, although these countries have a population many times greater than Azerbaijan. The Republic's Academy of Sciences is a major scientific centre. There are 130 research institutes in the Republic with 13,000 scientific workers.

THE LITHUANIAN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

Formed July 21, 1940, and admitted to the USSR on August 3, 1940; area, 65,200 sq. km.; population, as of January 1, 1967, 3,026,000; Lithuanians 79.3 per cent, Russians 8.5 per cent, Poles 8.5 per cent, Byelorussians 1.1 per cent.

Vilnius, the capital, has a population of 317,000.

The Republic suffered cruelly from the nazi invasion. Most of the industrial enterprises and houses were destroyed. Transport almost came to a standstill. Soviet Lithuania restored what had been destroyed and became a country with a developed industry, large-scale mechanised agriculture and an advanced culture.

With the help of the Russian Federation, the Ukraine and other Union Republics, Lithuania has built new industries: machine-tool, instrument-making and ship-building. The power industry is making rapid headway.

In 1966, the Lithuanian Republic had 18 times the 1940 industrial output. It produces radio equipment, diesel

engines, mineral fertilisers, fabrics, footwear, furniture, bicycles and beautiful handicrafts from wood, ceramics and amber. The number of industrial workers has increased more than fivefold in the post-war period. Agrarian overpopulation and unemployment have been done away with for ever. Many new factories and plants are under construction. During 1966-70 engineering industry output will increase 1.7 times and instruments 2 times, fabrics 2.7 times, knitted garments 2.2 times. A modern fishing fleet has been built, the fish catch rose from 1,200 tons in 1940 to 271,500 tons in 1966. Lithuanians grow rye, wheat, barley, maize, buckwheat, flax, sugar beet, potatoes, vegetables. On January 1, 1967, the Republic had 1,600,000 head of horned cattle and 1,700,000 pigs. Per capita production of milk and butter in Lithuania greatly exceeds the level achieved under the bourgeois system.

Highly mechanised land reclamation stations, equipped with bulldozers, power shovels, scrapers and other machinery, are reclaiming marshland. The area drained annually is about 100,000 hectares.

The eleven higher educational institutions are attended by 51,000 students, nearly nine times the number in bourgeois Lithuania. According to 1959 census, 1.3 per cent of the population had a higher education and 17.5 per cent had a secondary education; in old Lithuania the respective figures were 0.2 and 6.4 per cent.

The Republic has eleven theatres including the State Academic Opera and Ballet Theatre in Vilnius and the State Musical Theatre in Kaunas known for their artistry. Amateur art is encouraged in every way and thousands upon thousands of Lithuanians participate in urban and rural choirs, orchestras, drama circles and dance groups. Lithuania's 2,200 libraries have more than 17 million books and magazines. Annually the publishing houses put out about 2,000 books totalling more than 14,500,000 copies. The circulation of some 80 newspapers exceeds 1,000,000 copies.

There are 22 doctors per 10,000 people. Lithuanian health resorts with their holiday homes and sanatoriums, including Palanga on the Baltic coast, attract holiday-makers from all parts of Lithuania and other Union Republics.

THE MOLDAVIAN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

Formed August 2, 1940; area 33,700 sq. km; population, as of January 1, 1967, 3,425,000; Moldavians 65.4 per cent, Ukrainians 14.6 per cent, Russians 10.2 per cent, gagauzi 3.3 per cent.

Kishinev, the capital, has a population of 302,000.

The contours of the Moldavian Republic, located in the southwest of the Soviet Union, resemble a large cluster of grapes. And indeed, it is a grape- and fruit-growing country. Moldavia contributes a quarter of the grape crop in the Soviet Union, half of the rose oil, and holds second place in tobacco production, after the Ukraine.

In addition to grapes and fruit, the Republic raises high-grade winter wheat, maize (which is the main grain crop), sunflower (the biggest industrial crop) and also hemp, soya beans and essential-oil plants.

The growth in the production of fruit, grapes, vegetables and sugar beet has spurred on the development of the food industries which have expanded nearly eightfold compared with 1940. Thus, Moldavia is one of the country's biggest producers of grape wines. It also makes vast quantities of canned foods.

Plans call for 22,000 hectares of orchards, berry fields and 80,000 hectares of vineyards to be planted by 1970. The gross crop of fruits and berries, and of grapes in 1970 will be 652 and 1,240,000 tons, respectively.

In the recent period the Republic has built large enterprises which manufacture electric motors, cables, tractors, cement, prefabricated concrete elements, washing machines and refrigerators. Leather footwear manufacture has been growing at a particularly fast pace.

Moldavia has acquired large power facilities. In 1940 the Republic generated 17 million kwh of electricity and today it generates over 3,900 million kwh. The big Dubossary hydropower station has been built on the Dniester. In autumn 1964 the first unit of the 1.2-million kw Moldavian state district thermal electric station—the largest in the Dniester area—was put into operation. By the beginning of 1966 Moldavia was generating one and a half times as

much electricity as the whole of pre-revolutionary Russia.

Moldavia has now over 2,500 general education schools. The Republic has 38 specialised secondary schools and 7 higher educational institutions including the State University with 81,000 future specialists.

The Moldavian Academy of Sciences unites over 50 research establishments.

Moldavia's original, national art is flourishing. The Republic has six state theatres, a philharmonic society, ten amateur people's theatres, many song and dance companies, choirs, amateur art studios, over 1,500 clubs in town and country and 1,600 libraries.

The number of medical institutions has been greatly increased.

The population growth rate is two times the 1940 level.

It is worth mentioning that only during the last seven years (1959-65) over 1,000,000 people, one-third of the population, have moved to new flats.

THE LATVIAN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

Formed July 21, 1940, and admitted to the USSR on August 5, 1940; area, 63,700 sq. km; population, as of January 1, 1967, 2,285,000; Letts 62 per cent, Russians 26.6 per cent, Byelorussians 2.9 per cent, Poles 2.9 per cent.

Riga, the capital, has a population of 680,000.

The output of Latvian industry is well known throughout the Soviet Union. Soviet Latvia manufactures one-fourth of the railway carriages produced in the country for electric railway lines, one-fifth of the radio sets, and one-sixth of the household washing machines. Total industrial output (1966 data) has risen more than 17 times over the pre-war figure and engineering and metal-working output has increased 120 times.

The output of steel, rolled stock, pig iron, mineral fertilisers, cement, fabrics, footwear and foodstuffs has grown

immensely. In two days the Republic puts out more manufactured goods than in one month in 1940.

Latvia is a maritime country and fishing plays a big part in its economy. The Letts now catch fish not only in the Baltic but also in the Atlantic near the coasts of Canada and Africa. The fish catch in 1966 was almost 28 times what it was in 1940. The output of tinned fish (herring, sprat) has increased almost to the same extent.

Livestock raising largely determines the disposition of the sown area, almost three-quarters of which is taken up by food grains and fodder crops. Animal husbandry stimulates the rapid growth of food factories, creameries, cheese factories.

Collective farms in many districts also raise poultry and keep bees. The Republic also has silver fox and mink farms.

Plans call for a further development of all branches of the economy: radio equipment, electronics, transport machine building, electrical engineering, instrument industry, building materials, meat-packing, dairy and fishing industries.

During the Second World War 300 Latvian schools were destroyed and 900 were damaged and about 3,000 teachers were killed by the nazis. After the war, the schools had to be rebuilt almost from scratch. Now there are 1,500 general education schools and the number of higher educational institutions has increased since 1940 from 4 to 10 and the number of students trebled.

Like the other Republics Latvia has the Academy of Sciences. Scientific literature and fiction are published in Riga and other cities in both Lettish and Russian. Every year over 2,000 titles totalling about 13 million copies are issued. Eighty newspapers are published in the Republic. Latvia's 1,600 urban and rural libraries have more than 13,5 million books and magazines.

The Republic has 10 regular theatres, a state philharmonic society and a conservatoire. Amateur art is very popular—there are about 1,000 choirs and vocal groups, 750 dance groups, over 1,000 drama circles, more than 500 folk orchestras and musical groups and 300 amateur art studios. Song festivals, drama and amateur art reviews are regularly held in Latvia.

THE KIRGHIZ SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

Formed October 14, 1924, as an Autonomous Region; reconstituted into an Autonomous Republic on February 1, 1926; became a Union Republic on December 5, 1936; area, 198,500 sq. km.; population, as of January 1, 1967, 2,749,000; Kirghiz 40.5 per cent, Russians 30.2 per cent, Uzbeks 10.6 per cent, Ukrainians 6.6 per cent.

Frunze, the capital, has a population of 396,000.

The Kirghiz Republic is situated at the junction of two gigantic mountain systems, the Tien-Shan (Celestial Mountains) and the Pamirs. It is noted for its severe natural beauty and amazing range of climate. In one day you can enjoy the weather of all four seasons or go skiing in mid-July.

Before the Revolution, Kirghiz herdsmen roamed the foothills and valleys, always on the move. They were destitute, devoid of all rights, leading a miserable existence. Only one or two per cent of the population could read or write. The Kirghiz had no written language of their own.

In Soviet times the Kirghiz settled on the land, acquired a written language, mastered agriculture (prior to the Revolution the land was cultivated by Russian and Ukrainian settlers) and built up their own industry.

Kirghizia now produces wheat, cultivates cotton, tobacco, southern hemp, kenaf, essential-oil plants and poppy for medicinal purposes. Grape- and fruit-growing and silkworm breeding also have an important place in the economy.

Irrigation systems have enabled the Kirghiz to expand the sown area and raise yields. The construction of the Orto-Tokoi reservoir (40 sq. km) in the mountains and the Large Chuya Canal have been of particular importance.

Livestock raising is the main branch of agriculture. Of the 13 million hectares suitable for agriculture, eleven million hectares are pasture and meadowland. The large herds of cattle, huge flocks of fine-fleece sheep and droves of horses make up the wealth of the Republic. Kirghiz scientists have evolved new breeds of livestock.

It has deposits of lead ore and oil. It is one of the country's foremost suppliers of mercury and antimony. Over 30

industries, 500 large non-ferrous metallurgical enterprises, machine-building and instrument-making, oil, gas, light and food industries have been built in the Republic in Soviet times.

The Republic has greater water power resources than all of West Europe. The hydropower stations of the Republic generate more electricity than was obtained in all of Russia in 1913. Besides being a source of cheap electricity these projects are used to irrigate the arid, highly fertile land. The construction of a cascade of large power stations has been started on the swift Naryn River whose waters rush down the steep slopes of the Tien-Shan Mountains. Kirghizia generates six times more electric power per capita than Turkey, 15 times more than Iran and 26 times more than Pakistan.

In the past Kirghizia was known as a country of «roadless mountains.» Today highways cross the towering Tien-Shan Mountains and valleys. Air transport is also widely used.

Throughout the present territory of Kirghizia (it is five times greater than Switzerland), before the Revolution there were only four secondary schools, and not a single college.

In 1966 general education schools had an attendance of 657,000, the 36 specialised secondary schools—over 35,000 and eight higher educational institutions—about 37,000. The Kirghiz Academy of Sciences consists of several dozen scientific research establishments employing some 4,000 researchers.

The Republic has six regular theatre companies and 1,500 amateur art groups.

THE TAJIK SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

Formed October 14, 1924, as an Autonomous Republic and reconstituted into a Union Republic on December 5, 1936; area, 143,100 sq. km; population, as of January 1, 1967, 2,454,000; Tajiks 53.1 per cent, Uzbeks 23 per cent, Russians 13.3 per cent.

Dushanbe, the capital, has a population of 332,000.

The Tajik Republic (Tajikistan) includes the Gorny Badkhashan Autonomous Region (Khorog).

Tajikistan is a mountainous Republic. The greater part of the Pamirs, including the tallest peaks in the Soviet Union, is located here.

Soviet geologists prospected this area and found coal, oil, gas, ozocerite, lead, zinc, tungsten, bismuth, gold, silver, mountain crystals and building materials. With the help of the industrially developed Soviet Republics the Tajiks have used this wealth to build a modern industry. First came cotton gins and food factories, followed by mining, metal-working, engineering, electrical engineering and chemical industries. The capital, in the past a squalid settlement, now has factories manufacturing tractor and automobile spare parts, cotton gins, silk reeling and woollen mills.

Tajiks took to crop-growing and stock-raising long ago. Today thousands of various machines are used on the collective and state farms and large irrigation systems have been built. Vast areas in the Vakhsh and Gissar valleys, which formerly lay idle owing to the lack of water, are now yielding large crops. Cotton-growing, silkworm-rearing, grape-and fruit-growing and animal husbandry have all been developed. Tajikistan is next to Uzbekistan in cotton production.

The Kayrak Kum hydropower station, erected on the Syr Darya, has increased the power facilities of Tajikistan and neighbouring Uzbekistan. The dam on the river has formed a large reservoir known as Tajik Lake. The Nurek hydropower station is now under construction on the Vakhsh River. A dam the height of a hundred-storey skyscraper will straddle the Vakhsh, the largest of the 530 rivers in Tajikistan. It will create a man-made sea in the spurs of the Pamirs to hold more than 10,000 million cu. m of water. This station has a capacity of 2.8 million kw (greater than the American Grand Coulee). The huge reservoir will make it possible to irrigate up to 3,000,000 hectares of land in the Tajik and Uzbek Republics. In the future a cascade of superstations will appear on the Vakhsh and the Panj rivers. Each is to be much bigger than the Nurek station.

Before the Revolution, this area was the most illiterate in Russia. Tajik women were totally illiterate and only five of every 1,000 men could read or write. In 1914, there were only a few religious schools at the mosques and some so-called Russian native schools with one teacher each.

Today about 3,000 general education schools have an attendance of over 613,000. The Republic has an Academy of Sciences, 60 scientific research establishments, seven higher educational institutions and 30 specialised secondary schools with an attendance of 62,000. There are over 120 students per 10,000 inhabitants.

Tajikistan has eight regular theatres, over 800 clubs and cultural centres, more than 850 libraries, national publishing houses and film studios.

THE ARMENIAN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

Formed November 29, 1920; area, 29,800 sq. km; population, as of January 1, 1967, 2,253,000; Armenians 88 per cent, Azerbaijanians 6.1 per cent, Russians 3.2 per cent, Kurds 1.5 per cent.

Yerevan, the capital, has a population of 665,000.

Armenia, a country of mountains, is situated in the southern part of Transcaucasia. The mountain chain is crowned by Aragats (Alagez), an extinct volcano (4,095 m). Fertile valleys lie at the foothills of the mountains and swift rivers carry their waters down the steep mountain slopes.

In area this is the smallest Union Republic but no one now complains of lack of land. Before the Revolution, when only 750,000 people lived in Armenia, the lack of arable land and unemployment compelled thousands of Armenians to leave their native country for parts of Russia, and countries in Europe, Asia and America. Today, many émigrés are repatriated and every one has been given a chance to work and lead a secure life without anxiety for the morrow.

Armenia lies in the subtropical belt. Its valleys suffer from lack of moisture but water from irrigation canals permits big harvests of the most diverse crops. The Armenian people grow wheat, maize, barley, sugar beet, cotton, grapes, tobacco, peaches, apricots, pomegranates and figs. Armenian fruit is known for its high sugar content, delicious taste and aroma. The irrigated area is expanding every year and the fields, orchards and vineyards are spreading out.

The Turkmen Republic (Turkmenia or Turkmenistan) lies on the same latitude as North Africa and its southernmost point, Kushka, is closer to the equator than Algeria. It gets as much sunshine as Egypt and California. Yellow is the colour dominating the map of Turkmenia: the Kara Kum, one of the largest Central Asian deserts, occupies more than four-fifths of the territory. Life on this desolate land depends solely on water and that is why so much importance is attached to irrigation systems, irrigation canals and reservoirs.

The Great Kara Kum Canal, the world's longest irrigation and shipping canal, is now under construction. It begins at Mukry station near the Soviet-Afghan border, crosses the Kara Kum sands, passes through the Mary oasis and reaches the Tejend River. In the spring of 1962, the canal supplied Amu Darya water to Ashkhabad, the capital. More than 160,000 hectares of desert land have already received life-giving water. The third section of the canal when completed will provide water for irrigating 400,000 hectares of new lands. Climatic conditions make it possible to grow the most valuable varieties of long-staple cotton. Turkmenia has the highest yield of this important crop in the world.

Oil-refining, gas, chemical and other industries have been built on the basis of the available raw material deposits (there are more than 500 of them). Mirabilite is being extracted in the Kara-Bogaz-Gol Bay on the Caspian. Deposits of sulphur are worked in the heart of the Kara Kum Desert. Turkmenia is the country's biggest supplier of ozocerite. The textile, silk-reeling and food industries are rapidly expanding.

Before the Revolution this poverty-ridden and backward area did not have a single higher or specialised secondary school. Not a single book or newspaper was published in the Turkmen language. Today Turkmenistan has over 100 students per 10,000 inhabitants, twice the ratio in the FRG and four times that of Turkey.

Hundreds of gifted Turkmens have graduated from higher educational institutions, have gone in for science and are working in the Republic's research establishments. The laboratories and scientific stations of the Turkmen Academy of Sciences are splendidly equipped in keeping with modern research standards.

The status of the Turkmen woman has radically changed.

In the past she was treated as a chattel. Today Turkmen men and women are equals with the same opportunities for education and employment. The Republic has 33,000 women with a higher or specialised secondary education.

Clan feuds and primitive tribal customs have become a thing of the past. Yesterday's nomad herdsmen live in well-appointed communities. Only the shepherds who move with their flocks live in felt tents (jurtas).

In Turkmenia, as in all other Soviet Republics, longevity has become the rule, and mortality, particularly infant mortality, has been radically reduced. There are now 250 hospitals on the territory of the Republic compared with 13 medical institutions before the Revolution. The number of doctors has increased scores of times. The Republic has over 20 doctors per 10,000 population.

THE ESTONIAN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

Formed July 21, 1940; on August 6, 1940 was admitted to the USSR; area, 45,100 sq. km; population, as of January 1, 1967, 1,294,000; Estonians 74.6 per cent, Russians 20.1 per cent, Finns 1.4 per cent, Ukrainians 1.3 per cent.

Tallinn, the capital, has a population of 340,000.

The Estonian Republic is located in the northwest of the Soviet Union. In addition to the mainland it includes over 800 islands in the Baltic Sea.

Engineering and metal-working are the main industries. The Republic produces road-building machinery, trench excavators, precision instruments, equipment for the oil, mining and chemical industries, mercury rectifiers, semi-conductors and gas analysers.

Estonia is rich in power resources, water power, peat and especially combustible shale. Gas, liquid fuel, chemicals and other valuable products are obtained from shale. The shale-processing works built after the war in the new town of Kohtla-Järve is the biggest in the world. From here gas is piped to other Estonian cities and to Leningrad. Shale production rose from 1.9 million tons in 1940 to 16.1 million tons in 1966.

The power industry is swiftly expanding. A number of stations, including a hydropower station on the Narva Falls, have been built. A large electric station in Ellamaa is working on peat. The Baltic district thermal station is the biggest in the northwestern part of the USSR. Another New-Baltic district thermal station is under construction now. Estonia has the greatest per capita production of electricity of the Union Republics.

The timber and wood-working industries, the oldest in Estonia, are rapidly expanding along with its textile industry. Not long ago the modernised Krengolm mills observed its centenary. In 1940, the textile industry produced 23 million linear metres of cotton fabrics, while by 1966 production had been upped to over 140 million metres. Estonia has the highest per capita output of fabrics in the country.

Estonian fishing trawlers and refrigerator ships ply the North Atlantic to catch herring. The fish catch rose from 22,800 tons in 1940 to 200,000 tons in 1966. The Republic has the biggest per capita catch and output of tinned fish in the country.

A large part of the sown area is taken up with fodder and grain crops. Flax is the main industrial crop. Large-scale drainage has made it possible to extend the cultivated area and to increase farm production.

Merchant vessels flying the flags of many countries call at the port of Tallinn.

Under the Soviet power attendance at higher educational institutions and specialised secondary schools has increased 4.5 and 13 times, respectively. Over 27,000 people are studying at the 35 specialised secondary schools and 22,000 at six higher educational institutions. Today Estonia has 166 students per 10,000 inhabitants.

The number of libraries, clubs, theatres and museums has increased considerably. In 1966 more than 1,400 titles totalling 8.7 million copies were issued in Estonian.

Bodies of Power

WHO RUNS THE COUNTRY?

All power in the country belongs to the workers, peasants and intellectuals, that is to say to the people as a whole.

The bodies of state power are the Soviets (Councils) of Working People's Deputies elected by all citizens of the USSR from 18 years of age and over by secret ballot on the basis of universal, equal and direct suffrage.

Lenin described the Soviets as a form of power «open to all, operating in full view of the people, within their reach, stemming directly from them, a direct and immediate body of the people and their will.»

There are about 50,000 Soviets in the country ranging from local Soviets to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR. All the Soviets are elective bodies. Over two million deputies are assisted by a 23-million army of volunteers. Therefore, the Soviets are at the same time a public organisation.

During the time that the present USSR Constitution has been in force (it was adopted at the 8th Congress of Soviets in 1936) over 16.5 million people have been elected deputies

to local Soviets. If we take into account the tens of millions of voluntary activists we shall see that every sixth or seventh adult citizen takes part in the work of Soviets.

WHAT IS THE SUPREME SOVIET OF THE USSR?

The Supreme Soviet of the USSR is the highest body of state power in the country. All legislative power in the country as a whole is exercised exclusively by the Supreme Soviet which has jurisdiction over the following:

- representation of the USSR in international relations; the conclusion, ratification and abrogation of treaties between the USSR and other states; the establishment of general procedure in the relations of the Union Republics with foreign states;

- questions of war and peace;

- the admission of new Republics into the USSR;

- control over the observance of the Constitution of the USSR and ensuring conformity of the Constitutions of the Union Republics with the Constitution of the Soviet Union;

- approval of changes in boundaries between the Union Republics;

- approval of the formation of new Autonomous Republics and Autonomous Regions within the Union Republics;

- organisation of defence of the USSR, direction of the Armed Forces of the USSR, and definition of guiding principles for the organisation of military formations of the Union Republics;

- foreign trade on the basis of state monopoly;

- safeguarding the security of the state;

- approval of economic plans;

- approval of the consolidated state budget and the report of its implementation, determining taxes and other revenues for all-Union, Republican and local budgets;

- administration of banks, industrial and agricultural institutions and enterprises¹ under all-Union jurisdiction, as

¹ Enterprises under all-Union jurisdiction are enterprises and organisations which are immediately under the all-Union ministries. Enterprises under Union-Republican jurisdiction are those which

well as general direction of industry and building under Union-Republican jurisdiction;
administration of transport and communications of all-Union importance;
direction of the monetary and credit system;
organisation of state insurance;
contracting and granting of loans;
definition of the basic principles of land tenure and of the use of mineral wealth, forests and waters;
definition of basic principles in the sphere of education and public health;
organisation of a uniform system of economic statistics;
definition of the fundamentals of labour legislation, the judicial system and judicial procedure, marriage and family law and also the fundamentals of civil and criminal legislation;
legislation pertaining to Soviet citizenship and also the rights of foreigners;

promulgation of all-Union acts of amnesty.
The Supreme Soviet of the USSR elects its Presidium, which performs its functions in the period between sessions, and appoints the supreme executive and administrative body of state power in the country—the Council of Ministers of the USSR (the Soviet Government). It also elects the Supreme Court of the USSR and appoints the Procurator General of the USSR.

There are over 1,500 deputies to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR elected for a term of four years. The Supreme Soviet of the USSR consists of two Chambers with equal rights—the Soviet of the Union and the Soviet of Nationalities. Sessions of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR are called twice a year. A special session may be convened at the discretion of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR or on the demand of any of the Union Republics.
The seat of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR and its Presidium is in the Moscow Kremlin.

are directed by all-Union ministries through the respective ministries of the Union Republics.

WHY DOES THE SUPREME SOVIET OF THE USSR CONSIST OF TWO CHAMBERS?

The Soviet Union is a multi-national, federal state uniting over 100 different peoples. For that reason the supreme body of state power in the country consists of two Chambers—the Soviet of the Union, which represents the common interests of all working people of the USSR irrespective of nationality, and the Soviet of Nationalities, which expresses the special interests of each nation and nationality arising from the specific features of the economy, the historically evolved culture and mode of life.

Both Chambers have equal rights. They have an equal right to initiate legislation. A law is considered adopted only if passed by both Chambers.

WHAT ARE THE SPECIAL FEATURES OF THE SOVIET ELECTORAL SYSTEM?

In practice the number of voters coincides with the number of adult inhabitants in the country, which today is in excess of 144 million (as of June 12, 1966).

The principle of equality in voting is strictly observed. Each voter has only one vote. A candidate can stand for election only in one constituency. Both in town and countryside constituencies are formed according to the size of the population. All voters have equal rights in nominating candidates to the Soviets and also in conducting an unhampered electoral campaign. In this they have at their disposal a variety of facilities—radio broadcasts, the press, assemblies.

Soviet suffrage is direct. All bodies of power, including the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, are elected directly by the population, without any intermediate stages.

Voters and candidates incur no expenses during elections, all such expenses being borne by the state.

Both Communists and non-Party people participate in the elections in a single bloc. They jointly nominate candidates, jointly conduct the election campaign and jointly support the election of their candidates.

The Soviet electoral system is simple, clear and easy to understand.

HOW IS THE SUPREME SOVIET OF THE USSR ELECTED?

A decision on the holding of each election is passed by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR on the expiration of the four-year term of office of the Supreme Soviet or on its dissolution prior to the expiration of that term.

Deputies are elected to the Soviet of the Union from the entire population, irrespective of national state structure: one deputy representing 300,000 people.

Deputies to the Soviet of Nationalities are elected by the citizens of the Union Republics, Autonomous Republics, Autonomous Regions and National Areas, 32 deputies from each Union Republic, 11 deputies from each Autonomous Republic, 5 deputies from each Autonomous Region and one deputy from each National Area. Thus, representation in the Soviet of Nationalities depends on the form of national statehood, and not on the extent of its territory or size of the population.

The largest Union Republic—the Russian Federation—with a population of 127 million, has 32 seats in the Soviet of Nationalities, the same number as Estonia, the Republic with the smallest population (1,3 million).

For elections to the Soviet of the Union the country as a whole, irrespective of its federal structure, is divided into constituencies (one per 300,000 inhabitants). In the 1966 elections there were 767 such constituencies. For elections to the Soviet of Nationalities districts are formed irrespective of the size of the population: 32 constituencies in each Union Republic, 11 in each Autonomous Republic, five in each Autonomous Region, and one in each National Area, making a total of 750 constituencies. Constituencies within one Union or Autonomous Republic or Autonomous Region have the same population, each district electing one deputy to the Soviet of the Union and one to the Soviet of Nationalities. Voters lists are published not later than two months before the elections. Each constituency is divided into precincts of 500 to 3,000 voters. Precincts may be even smaller. They are determined no later than 45 days before election day.

For conducting elections, electoral committees are set up, ranging from the Central Electoral Committee to pre-

cinct committees. These committees consist of elected representatives of trade unions, cooperatives, Communist Party organisations, the youth, and various other unions and societies of working people.

Candidates for elections are nominated at meetings of working people at factories, collective farms and state farms, institutions and by other working people's organisations and societies. Any citizen, whether a Party member or not, can be recommended for nomination. An organisation, society or collective that nominates a candidate always takes into account that their recommendation must reflect the opinion of the majority of voters, that is why they nominate trustworthy, able and respected people, who are capable of properly carrying out the responsible duties of deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR. Candidates are registered with electoral committees not later than 30 days prior to elections.

Elections are held the same day throughout the USSR, usually on a Sunday. Polling begins at 6 a.m. and ends at 10 p. m.

Secrecy of voting is guaranteed to every elector. Only the voter himself is present in the booth or room where the ballot is filled in, and all ballots are dropped into a sealed ballot-box.

A candidate who has received more than half the votes is considered elected, provided that at least half the voters participated in the elections. Should no candidate receive a majority vote, fresh elections are conducted within a fortnight.

Elections to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR are always marked by a high degree of response from the population. Thus, 143,917,031 people (99.94 per cent of all registered voters) cast their votes in the 1966 elections. Of these 143,570,976 (99.76 per cent) voted for candidates to the Soviet of the Union, and 143,595,678 (99.80 per cent) for candidates to the Soviet of Nationalities.

WHO CAN BE ELECTED TO THE SUPREME SOVIET OF THE USSR?

Any Soviet citizen who has reached the age of 23 can be elected to the Supreme Soviet, irrespective of sex, nationality or social origin.

Statesmen, Party workers, public figures, executives, wage and salary earners and professional people can be elected to the Supreme Soviet. The Supreme Soviet contains various strata of society, representatives of all trades and callings in the country.

HOW MANY CANDIDATES NORMALLY STAND FOR ELECTION FROM EACH CONSTITUENCY?

Soviet electoral law does not limit the number of candidates standing for election in one constituency. However, out of all the candidates proposed by the various organisations and groups of working people as possible nominees, as a rule only one runs for election in the given constituency.

Why is it so?

The reason for this is that in the USSR there are no rival social forces or Parties with opposing interests, who would advance different programmes and struggle for control of representative bodies. There is only one Party in the Soviet Union—the Communist Party. The people—workers, peasants and intellectuals—have entrusted this Party to represent their interests and aspirations. That is why candidates for the post of deputy in the USSR are people's candidates and are nominated on behalf of a single bloc of Communists and non-Party people. In these conditions there would be no sense in artificially splitting the vote among several candidates with a single platform and it has become traditional to run only one candidate.

All candidates are nominated by mass organisations and general meetings. Both the electoral law and the entire practice of elections ensure the free, critical discussion of any number of candidates at such meetings. The candidate to be nominated by a given collective is decided by a majority vote. These meetings also elect representatives to constituency electoral conferences which consider all candidates nominated by organisations, institutions and separate groups of working people. It is the job of these conferences to choose the one that is most worthy of the honour. A candidate who did not enjoy the support of the constituency conference withdraws his candidature or his candidature is withdrawn by the organisation who proposed him (or her). The candidate chosen by the constituency conference is

then nominated on behalf of the single bloc of Communists and non-Party people and is backed by all the organisations, societies and groups of working people of the given constituency.

Freedom to elect candidates is guaranteed by a free vote. All electors are ensured every opportunity of voting for or against the candidate. If the electors think that a candidate is not worthy of their confidence they cast their vote against him. Thus, in 1967, 129 candidates out of more than two million for election to local Soviets, failed to get the necessary majority of votes and were not elected.

The Soviet people regard elections not only as an act of electing certain persons to representative bodies, but also as an appraisal of past activities of their government over a definite period and of its programme for the future. The fact that a very high percentage of electors invariably participate in the elections is indicative of the wholesale support of government policies. In 1967, at the elections to local Soviets, for example, the candidates of the bloc of Communists and non-Party people were supported by over 99 per cent of the electors.

WHAT IS THE COMPOSITION OF THE USSR SUPREME SOVIET?

Below is the composition of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR (seventh convocation) elected in June 1966:

Total number of deputies in both Chambers	1,517
Men	1,092
Women	425
Elected to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR for the first time	992
Members and candidate members of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (CPSU)	1,141
Non-Party deputies	376
Workers and farmers	698
Engineers, specialists in agriculture, teachers, scientists, writers, actors, salary workers, enterprise managers, deputies employed by the Soviets, Party bodies and trade unions	819

The distribution according to age groups is as follows: 182 under 30, 434 between 30 and 40, 420 between 40 and 50, 386 between 50 and 60, and 95 over 60. There are 58 nationalities represented in the Supreme Soviet.

WHAT RIGHTS DOES A DEPUTY HAVE?

A deputy of any Soviet may elect or be elected to any of the bodies of the Soviet:

he may table for consideration any question that comes within the jurisdiction of the Soviet, and take part in its discussion;

he may table any proposal on the essence of questions under discussion at sessions of the Soviet, and also propose amendments and changes to draft decisions, and cast his vote on all matters to be decided.

If authorised by the Soviet or its standing committees, or at the request of the Soviet's executive bodies, a deputy has the right to check the work of institutions, enterprises, state and collective farms, and demand of heads of enterprises, organisations and departments any information or figures necessary for the performance of his duties as deputy. He forwards complaints and applications by his electors for consideration by the appropriate organisations and tries to expedite matters.

A deputy to the Supreme Soviet has the right to formally question the government or any minister. Replies to such interpellations must be given within three days.

A deputy cannot be prosecuted or arrested without the consent of the Soviet, and in periods between sessions without the consent of the Soviet's executive body.

Deputies enjoy great confidence, influence, and authority, enabling them to make effective use of their rights to the advantage of society.

WHAT ARE THE DUTIES OF A DEPUTY?

First and foremost, a deputy is responsible both for the general direction of the Soviet's activities and for carrying out concrete instructions given by voters to the Soviet and its deputies during the electoral campaign. This mandate

may contain sweeping demands concerning, for instance, housing and municipal construction, the provision of facilities and public services, more schools, hospitals.

A deputy must acquaint the people in his constituency with decisions passed by the Soviet, explain them, induce the electorate actively to participate in their implementation and check on what is being done to carry out measures instituted by the Soviet. He must constantly keep in close touch with his constituents. From each district Soviets right up to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, all deputies personally accept complaints and applications and do what they can to act on them.

Twice a year, deputies account to their constituents, both on their own work and on the activities of the Soviet. In this way every citizen is able to express his opinion, criticise the work of any deputy or the entire Soviet.

CAN ELECTORS RECALL A DEPUTY?

A deputy may be recalled by his electors if he has not merited their confidence or has done anything unworthy of his high office. The question of recalling a deputy may be raised at electors' meetings. The law gives a deputy the right to present his explanation to the Soviet or his constituency with regard to the motives for recall. Voting for the recall of a deputy is organised by the Executive Committee of the Soviet concerned or the Presidium of the USSR Supreme Soviet and unhindered campaigning for or against recall is guaranteed. The question of recall is decided at a constituency meeting by a show of hands and recorded in the minutes. A deputy is considered recalled if more than half of the constituency have voted for it. Another deputy is elected in his place not later than two months after the recall.

In all their activity deputies are responsible to the electors. If a deputy discredits himself he may be recalled any time. Electors are very exacting to their deputies.

In 1965 some 800 deputies were recalled from Soviets of all levels numbering over 2 million deputies. Ten deputies were recalled from the USSR Supreme Soviet of the last second, fifth and sixth convocations.

There are no professional parliamentarians in the USSR who earn their living this way. They all have work which provides them with a livelihood. This, however, does not preclude reimbursement of expenses connected with the performance of a deputy's duties:

Postal and telegraph charges incurred in handling correspondence for his electors are a constant item of a deputy's expense.

Travelling expenses from a deputy's place of residence to sessions and back are paid.

A deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR travels free by air, rail and water while performing his duties. Deputies to city and district Soviets in large cities travel free by municipal transport. During sessions and when a deputy is engaged on committees of the Soviet, or carrying out special duties, he gets the average pay he would obtain at his place of regular employment.

WHY ARE THERE NO PROFESSIONAL PARLIAMENTARIANS IN THE SOVIET UNION?

A deputy to the Soviet is above all a competent expert in his trade or field of work. In the USSR a deputy to the Soviet is a worker, engineer, state employee, scientist, pressman or cultural worker. The mandate of a deputy does not mean he has to give up his professional work.

The absence of professional MPs in no way restricts the deputies from taking part in the consideration of major political and economic problems. On the contrary, their profound knowledge of concrete spheres and problems of everyday life gives them the right viewpoint on general problems and exerts an effective influence in deciding matters in the interests of the electors. Whenever a deputy has to work on a committee for a considerable period of time, he is naturally given time off from work for the necessary period.

A deputy spends most of his time amongst people, helping to implement the decisions passed by his Soviet.

The developement of socialist democracy makes it possible for all citizens, without exception, to take part in state affairs. It is customary for at least half deputies' seats to be filled by newcomers at each election.

HOW ARE LAWS PASSED?

Any citizen, group of citizens or organisation may take the initiative in proposing a bill passed. This is usually done through the press or in the form of a recommendation addressed directly to governmental bodies.

Each of the Chambers of the USSR Supreme Soviet has a standing committee on legislative proposals to determine which recommendations merit attention. This is followed by preparatory work on the draft of the appropriate law, with deputies, experts and various institutions taking part.

A bill may be submitted to the people for the substance of the bill and each concrete proposition to be carefully considered and amendments offered.

In recent years a number of highly important laws have been adopted in the USSR. These refer to the institution of a new system of state pensions, re-organisation of the educational system, the recalling of deputies, the reduction of working hours, the Five-Year Plan. In all cases, the draft bills were subjected to extensive public discussion.

The bill is then considered by the Supreme Soviet of the USSR. It is discussed by the deputies and put to a vote. A law is considered adopted if it is passed by both Chambers.

For an amendment to be made to the Constitution of the USSR, it must be passed by not less than two-thirds of the deputies to both Chambers of the Supreme Soviet. A bill may be the subject of a referendum.

The highest legislative body of a Union Republic is its Supreme Soviet. The drafting and adoption of laws by the Supreme Soviet of a Union Republic is the same, in principle, as for the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

WHAT STANDING COMMITTEES ARE THERE IN THE USSR SUPREME SOVIET?

Each Chamber has its own committees. Until recently there were four committees in the Soviet of the Union and five in the Soviet of Nationalities.

However, in August 1966 the first session of the USSR Supreme Soviet, the seventh convocation, decided to form the following ten committees in each Chamber:

Credentials Committee (31 members) verifies the credentials of deputies and later their activities as deputies, their reports to their constituents.

Planning and Budgetary Committee (51 members) considers the basic indicators of the national economic plan and the state budget, the problems of proportional development of economic sectors, inter-sectoral relations.

Committee for Industry, Transport and Communications (41 members).

Committee for Construction and Building Materials Industry (31 members).

Committee for Agriculture (41 members).

Committee for Public Health and Social Security (31 members).

Committee for Public Education, Science and Culture (31 members).

Committee for Trade and Utility Services (31 members).

Committee for Legislative Proposals (31 members) is concerned with drafting bills of a general nature, such as regulating the use of land and water, the judicial system and legal procedure, civil and criminal law, family law. The committee considers legislative proposals, studies recommendations and comments offered by the population and government and public organisations in the course of broad public discussion of the bills and presents them for discussion by the Supreme Soviet.

Foreign Affairs Committee (31 members) deals with USSR's foreign relations; it studies political, economic, scientific, cultural and other contacts of the Soviet Union with other states, its participation in international organisations.

The standing committees may set up sub-committees for a detailed study and analysis of specific problems.

Should the subject of study concern related spheres of economy and culture in charge of different committees, they may form joint subcommittees or find other forms of cooperation.

In addition to preliminary consideration of problems to be presented at the session of the Supreme Soviet and drafting appropriate proposals all standing committees super-

vise the fulfilment by executive bodies of the rulings of the Supreme Soviet.

The standing committees play an increasingly important role. They now comprise 700 members from both Chambers of the Supreme Soviet. Between sessions their activity is guided and coordinated by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet.

In the course of its current work, the Supreme Soviet may also institute investigation or auditing committees, or committees to deal with special questions. For example, in 1962 a special committee was instituted to prepare a new Draft Constitution of the USSR.

WHAT IS THE PRESIDIUM OF THE USSR SUPREME SOVIET?

In the intervals between sessions of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, its Presidium is the highest permanently functioning body of state power in the country. It consists of 37 members elected at the first joint sitting of both Chambers of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR. It consists of the Chairman, 15 Vice-Chairmen, one for each Union Republic, a Secretary and 20 members of the Presidium. The Presidium is accountable to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR for all its activities.

According to law the following are the principal duties of the Presidium:

- convening of sessions of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, its dissolution in case of disagreement between the Chambers and the ordering of new elections;

- the issue of decrees on major current problems concerning the country's internal and external affairs;

- interpretation of current laws;

- the holding of nation-wide polls (referendums) on its own initiative or if demanded by a Union Republic;

- the removal and appointment of members of the government of the USSR and heads of central departments, subject to subsequent confirmation by the Supreme Soviet in between sessions;

- the awarding of orders and medals and the conferring of titles of honour on citizens;

- exercise of the right of pardon;

ratification and denunciation of the USSR's treaties with other countries.

In the intervals between sessions of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, the Presidium can proclaim a state of war in the event of a military attack on the USSR or when it is necessary to fulfil international treaty obligations concerning mutual defence against aggression.

The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR appoints and recalls plenipotentiary representatives of the USSR in foreign states, and receives letters of credence and recall from foreign diplomats accredited to the Soviet Union.

The USSR has no president. These functions are performed by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

WHAT ARE INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS OF THE USSR SUPREME SOVIET?

Being the highest body of power in the Soviet Union the USSR Supreme Soviet gives much attention to problems of foreign policy. Its rulings on international questions are aimed at upholding peace and promoting friendship and cooperation of the Soviet Union with all countries.

Decisions of the USSR Supreme Soviet on matters of foreign policy take the form of decrees, appeals, statements, declarations and other documents.

Of particular significance among the documents of the USSR Supreme Soviet promoting the foreign policy activity of its deputies is the Declaration to All People and Parliaments of the World adopted on February 9, 1955. The Declaration, based on Lenin's principles of peaceful coexistence, emphasised specifically that direct contacts between parliaments, exchange of parliamentary delegations and the opportunity of parliamentarians of one country to speak in the parliaments of other countries, promote better understanding and meet the strivings of nations for friendly relations and cooperation. Before 1955 the Soviet Union was visited by two parliamentary delegations; by the beginning of 1967 the USSR played host to 95 delegations from 64 countries. More than 60 delegations of the USSR Supreme Soviet have in their turn visited 45 countries.

The USSR Parliamentary Group plays an important part in the development of interparliamentary contacts. Its representatives participate in the work of all bodies of the Interparliamentary Union.

HOW IS THE USSR GOVERNMENT FORMED?

This takes place at the first session of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR after elections. At a joint sitting of both Chambers the Chairman of the Council of Ministers submits a statement to the effect that the Council of Ministers surrenders its powers to the Supreme Soviet and considers its duties at an end.

This statement is then announced at the sitting of the Supreme Soviet. After discussion, the session adopts a decision appraising the work of the Council of Ministers in the period under review. The session appoints a new Chairman of the Council of Ministers and commissions him to submit his proposals on the new composition of the Government of the USSR to the Supreme Soviet.

At a subsequent joint sitting of both Chambers the Supreme Soviet approves the new composition of the Government—the USSR Council of Ministers.

Between sessions of the Supreme Soviet all matters regarding the composition of the Government are decided by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet subject to confirmation by the Supreme Soviet.

WHAT IS THE COMPOSITION OF THE USSR COUNCIL OF MINISTERS?

The Council of Ministers consists of:

a Chairman;

First Vice-Chairman;

Vice-Chairman;

Ministers of the USSR;

Chairman of the USSR State Planning Committee (Gosplan);

Chairman of the USSR State Committee for Construction (Gosstroy);

Chairman of the State Committee on Material and Equipment Supply;

Chairman of the People's Control Committee of the USSR Council of Ministers;

Chairman of the State Committee for Wages and Labour;

Chairman of the State Committee for Science and Technology;

Chairman of the State Committee for Vocational Technical Training;

Chairman of the State Committee for the Procurement of Agricultural Produce;

Chairman of the State Committee for Foreign Economic Relations;

Chairman of the State Security Committee of the USSR Council of Ministers;

Chairman of v/o Selkhoztekhnika;

Chairman of the Board of the State Bank of the USSR;

Head of the Central Statistical Department of the USSR Council of Ministers.

In accordance with the Soviet Constitution, the Council of Ministers of the USSR includes the Chairmen of the Councils of Ministers of the Union Republics by virtue of their office.

At present there are about 90 members of the Council of Ministers of the USSR.

WHAT POWERS DOES THE USSR COUNCIL OF MINISTERS HAVE?

The USSR Council of Ministers is the highest executive body of state power in the entire Union. The Council of Ministers is responsible and accountable to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR or, in the intervals between sessions of the Supreme Soviet, to the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR. The Council of Ministers of the USSR issues decisions and orders on the basis and in pursuance of the laws in operation and checks their execution. Its decisions and orders are binding throughout the territory of the USSR.

The Council of Ministers of the USSR coordinates and directs the work of the all-Union and Union Republican

ministries, the State Committees directly under the Council of Ministers of the USSR, and also other central institutions subordinate to it.

The Council of Ministers adopts measures to carry out the economic plan and state budget, and to strengthen the credit and the monetary system. It adopts measures for the maintenance of law and order for the protection of the interests of the state, and for safeguarding citizens' rights.

It also exercises general guidance in the sphere of foreign relations, and directs the general organisation of the armed forces.

It forms the USSR State Committees or, when necessary, Committees and Departments of the USSR Council of Ministers on economic, cultural or defence matters.

The USSR Government accounts regularly to the Supreme Soviet on its activity, the fulfilment of national economic plans, the state budget and on its foreign policy activities.

Members of the Government make reports at mass meetings of working people, meetings of activists, in the press and over radio and television.

The accountability of the Government to the Supreme Soviet, the discussion by the deputies of the Government's reports and criticism of shortcomings in the work of the ministries in the press and at mass meetings enhance the responsibility of the Government and its individual members for their work and make it fully correspond to the interests of the broad masses.

WHAT ARE THE FUNCTIONS OF A SOVIET MINISTRY?

By the middle of 1967 there were 54 ministries, among them 22 all-Union and 32 Union-Republican ministries.

Each all-Union ministry directs a branch of the national economy on a country-wide scale while the Union-Republican ministries direct corresponding branches of the economy, through corresponding ministries within the Republics.

Among all-Union ministries are those dealing with sectors of nation-wide significance, such as foreign trade, railways, merchant marine and civil air fleet and industries

of nation-wide significance, such as motor vehicle, gas, armaments, ship-building and electronics.

Union-Republican ministries are concerned with sectors jointly directed by the USSR and the Union Republics, such as agriculture, education, culture, public health, foreign affairs, defence, communications, trade, coal mining, finance, iron and steel industry.

The nature of a ministry's activity obviously depends on the matters under its supervision. The majority of Soviet ministries are concerned with economy and production. Of the total of 54 ministries 45 are in charge of industry, construction, transport and agriculture, six deal with domestic and external trade, culture, secondary and higher education and public health and only three ministries—foreign affairs, defence and public order—are purely administrative or political bodies.

The economic ministries are responsible for running their respective sectors of the national economy, ensuring a high level of production and fully satisfying the country's requirements in industrial and agricultural products.

Centralised sectoral guidance of the national economy is combined with the initiative and freedom of individual enterprises.

A ministry is headed by a minister who is accountable to the Council of Ministers and the Supreme Soviet.

The minister is chairman of his ministry's collegium whose members are approved by the Government. This guiding body considers the more important problems of management, hears reports of subordinate organisations. The collegium's sittings are attended by representatives of the trade union, best workers and scientists.

Sectoral conferences are held regularly to consider various specific problems, exchange experience and bring shortcomings to light. Thus the one-man guidance by the minister goes together with the collective discussion and settlement of major questions of the ministry's activity.

Within the compass of their powers, USSR ministers issue appropriate orders and instructions on the basis or in pursuance of operating laws and decrees and orders of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, and organise and check the execution thereof.

WHAT COMES WITHIN THE JURISDICTION OF STATE COMMITTEES?

State committees hold an important place in the system of administrative bodies. Some of them cover several branches of national economy (for example, the USSR State Planning Committee and the USSR State Committee for Construction), while other committees deal with a specific field (e. g. the USSR State Committee for Forestry, the State Committee for Vocational Technical Training).

There are State Committees under the USSR Council of Ministers dealing with various spheres of culture: the State Committee for Cinematography, the State Committee for Radio Broadcasting and Television and the State Committee for Press, the Committee of the USSR Council of Ministers for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries.

Most committees are under the USSR Council of Ministers or its subordinate bodies. For example, the State Committee for Civil Construction and Architecture is under the USSR State Committee for Construction, while the State Committee on Prices is subordinate to the USSR State Planning Committee.

State Committees and the Committees of the USSR Council of Ministers have full authority in their field.

WHAT ARE THE HIGHEST BODIES OF POWER IN THE UNION AND AUTONOMOUS REPUBLICS?

Each Republic has its Supreme Soviet with a Presidium, its Council of Ministers and Supreme Court.

The Supreme Soviet is the sole legislative body in each Union Republic and is elected for four years. Representation is based on population and established by the Constitution of the Union Republic. The Russian Federation elects one deputy to its Supreme Soviet for each 150,000 inhabitants, while the respective figures for the Ukrainian, the Latvian and the Turkmen Union Republics are 100,000, 10,000 and 5,000.

The number of deputies in the Supreme Soviets of the Union Republics also varies. In 1967, the Supreme Soviet of the Russian Federation had 884 deputies, the Ukraine

had 469, Byelorussia 421, Kazakhstan 476, Uzbekistan 458, Turkmenia 285.

The Supreme Soviet of a Union Republic:

- adopts the Constitution of the Republic and introduces amendments to it;

- confirms the Constitutions of the Autonomous Republics forming part of it, and defines the boundaries;

- approves the Republic's economic plan and budget;

- exercises the right of amnesty and pardon of citizens sentenced by judicial bodies of the Union Republic;

- determines the manner of organising the Republic's military formations;

- decides questions of representation of the Union Republic in its international relations.

The Presidium of the Republican Supreme Soviet is elected by the Republic's Supreme Soviet and is fully accountable to it. It consists of a Chairman, Vice-Chairmen, a Secretary and members. The numerical composition of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet is defined by the Constitution of the Republic. In Union Republics which contain Autonomous Republics and Autonomous Regions, the Presidium must include their representatives as Vice-Chairmen of the Presidium. The jurisdiction of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of a Union Republic is defined by the Constitution of the Republic. In intervals between sessions of the Supreme Soviet its Presidium is the highest body of state power of a Union Republic.

The Supreme Soviets of the Union Republics form the following standing committees: credentials, planning-budget, for legislative proposals, for foreign affairs as well as committees on various branches of economy and culture. The number of such committees varies from eight to 16 members depending on the specific features of each Republic. All in all the Supreme Soviets of the Union Republics have some 170 committees with nearly 3,000 members.

The Council of Ministers of a Union Republic is the highest executive and administrative body of state power in that Republic. It is appointed by the Supreme Soviet of the Union Republic and is responsible and accountable to it and in periods between sessions of the Supreme Soviet, to the Presidium. The composition of a Council of Ministers and its structure may vary with individual Union Re-

publics, depending on the size of the Republic and the specific features of its economy.

The ministries of a Union Republic are either of Union or Union-Republican subordination. Union-Republican ministries are subordinate both to the Council of Ministers of their Republic and the corresponding Union-Republican ministry of the USSR, while Republican ministries are directly subordinate to the Council of Ministers of their Republic which organises and directs all economic and cultural activities in the Republic.

The highest bodies of power in Autonomous Republics are similar to those in the Union Republics.

The Supreme Soviet of an Autonomous Republic is elected for a four-year term, representational quota being established by each Republic's Constitution. The numerical composition of Supreme Soviets of Autonomous Republics varies from 60 to 150 deputies.

The Supreme Soviet of an Autonomous Republic makes amendments in the Republic's Constitution, approves its economic plan and budget, passes laws, elects the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the Autonomous Republic, appoints its Council of Ministers, elects the Supreme Court of the Autonomous Republic and controls the activity of the subordinate bodies.

The powers of the Supreme Soviet of an Autonomous Republic are less extensive than those of the Supreme Soviet of a Union Republic. Some of its legislative acts, such as adoption and amendment of the Constitution are subject to approval of the Supreme Soviet of the Union Republic of which the Autonomous Republic is a part.

The Supreme Soviet of an Autonomous Republic elects its Presidium which is the highest body of state power between sessions of the Supreme Soviet.

The highest executive body in an Autonomous Republic is its Council of Ministers which is in charge of the Republic's economic and cultural development.

WHAT ARE LOCAL BODIES OF POWER?

The bodies of state power in territories, regions, national areas, cities, districts and rural localities are the Soviets of Working People's Deputies.

Local Soviets are elected by the population of a given locality for a term of two years. The basis of representation is determined by the Constitutions of the Union Republics. The minimum number of deputies is 100 for a territorial or regional Soviet, 75 for a district Soviet, 50 for a city Soviet and 25 for a settlement or village Soviet.

During the last elections to local Soviets held in March 1967 a total of two million deputies was elected all over the USSR. 29.6 per cent of the deputies are workers, 31.3 per cent collective farmers, 42.8 per cent are women, 46.1 per cent Party members or candidates and 53.9 per cent non-Party deputies.

There are representatives of more than 100 peoples and nationalities among the deputies of local Soviets; more than half of them were elected for the first time.

Sessions of local Soviets are held regularly at intervals established by a Republic's constitution, but not less than four times a year. Extra sessions may be convened at the initiative of higher Soviets and their executive committees or of a group of deputies.

Important work is done by standing commissions formed by each Soviet. These include a budgetary and finance commission, cultural commission, educational commission, commissions for public health and social security, utility services and housing, socialist legality and others. By the beginning of 1967 the 50,000 local Soviets had nearly 300,000 standing commissions with more than 1.6 million members.

Thus more than 80 per cent of all deputies take part in the activities of standing commissions. More than 2.5 million voluntary activists help the commissions make a thorough study of their problems and prepare constructive recommendations for the sessions of the Soviet. The number of standing commissions and their terms of reference are decided by each Soviet depending on the local conditions. The authority of the standing commissions is steadily growing, and in practice they go beyond giving recommendations and often settle matters which used to be the competence of Soviet's executive committees.

Local Soviets and their executive committees rely on the support and initiative of the masses and various public organisations.

The local Soviet directs the work of administrative organs subordinate to it, measures maintenance of law and order,

the observance of laws and the protection of the rights of citizens, directs local economic and cultural affairs and draws up the local budget.

The Soviet of Working People's Deputies of a territory, region or other division elects its executive committee consisting of a chairman, vice-chairmen, a secretary and members. Executive committees implement the decisions of their Soviets and the legislative acts and rulings of higher bodies of power. The executive committees of territorial, regional, district and city Soviets have departments and boards in charge of various economic and cultural sectors and activities, such as public health department, finance department, planning commission, board of local industries.

WHAT IS THE SCOPE OF THE PROBLEMS DEALT WITH BY A CITY SOVIET?

A city Soviet considers and approves the city's plans of economic and cultural development, and its budget. It directs local economic and cultural affairs—housing and municipal matters, trade, public catering, schools, cultural institutions, health services, social security, public services and amenities. The organisation of housing construction is one of the most important duties of a city Soviet.

A city Soviet controls many aspects of the activities of the industrial enterprises which are not directly subordinate to it. In particular, the Soviet verifies how factories fulfil the plan for housing and communal facilities to meet the needs of their staffs, and how safety engineering, hygiene and fire precautions are observed. The Soviet also sees that enterprises keep within their budget and do not exceed the established complement of workers. It assigns land for industrial construction, housing and cultural institutions taking into account not only the economic considerations involved but also the interests of the inhabitants of the city. If a given city is large enough to be divided into districts, the city Soviet also directs the activities of executive committees of the district Soviets.

The city Soviet has as a rule the following standing commissions: an auditing commission, those dealing with

budget and financial problems, culture and general education, schools, health and social security, municipal economy and housing construction, road construction and public amenities, trade, public catering, construction of industrial enterprises, communication facilities, services, socialist legality.

The basic principle underlying the activities of a city Soviet is the welfare of the inhabitants, providing the best possible living conditions.

WHAT IS THE SCOPE OF THE PROBLEMS DEALT WITH BY A DISTRICT SOVIET IN A RURAL LOCALITY?

Here the Soviet sees that the laws concerning agriculture are carried out in the locality and concerns itself with the well-being and cultural development of rural workers.

The following tasks come under the competence of a district Soviet: maintenance of law and order and the protection of citizens' rights; the preparation and approval of the district budget; ensuring the proper operation of the law of land tenure; organisation of local road building, ensuring of proper planning of building in villages and settlements; organisation of trade, public catering, health, social security; the running of kindergartens and nurseries, schools, public services establishments, clubs, libraries, and other cultural institutions. The Soviet is also responsible for improvements in public services and amenities in the district.

A district Soviet functioning in rural localities usually has standing commissions for the following: agriculture, budget and financial problems, culture and general education, schools, health and social security, road building, improvements in public services and amenities, trade and public catering, socialist legality, nature preservation and an auditing commission.

A district Soviet directs the activities of all subordinate enterprises, organisations and institutions, and especially of village Soviets.

WHAT IS A VILLAGE SOVIET?

A village Soviet is the body of state power in a rural locality. The village Soviets are the most numerous of the people's bodies of power and consist of almost one and a half million deputies. Over 110 million people live in the territory under their jurisdiction.

As a rule a village Soviet controls one big village and several hamlets nearby. The number of inhabitants living on the territory of a village Soviet is usually between 3,000 and 5,000. There is an average of between 15 and 20 village Soviets in a rural district.

Within its territory a village Soviet ensures maintenance of order, the observance of laws and the protection of citizens' rights. It gives active assistance to the local collective or state farm in carrying out farm work, obtaining high yields, and the fulfilment of plans for developing publicly-owned animal husbandry.

A village Soviet handles budget revenue and expenditures, provides cultural and public services, sees to improvement of work of medical and educational institutions, and consumers' cooperatives. It helps to create organisations uniting several collective farms for the construction of enterprises for processing agricultural produce and production of building materials and provides architectural supervision over housing construction in villages. It also protects the natural wealth of its territory.

A village Soviet holds general meetings of villagers at which questions of local interest are discussed. A village Soviet has the same standing committees as higher Soviets, to carry out its main functions. The committees work in close contact with the residents.

WHAT CONSTITUTES THE BUDGET OF A LOCAL SOVIET?

The budget of a local Soviet forms part of the state budget of the relevant Union Republic. Overall expenses are determined by the Supreme Soviet of the Union Republic but if the local Soviet, on approving its budget, finds the allotted sums insufficient, it is entitled to increase those sums from its own resources.

Local Soviets have large sums at their disposal, totalling 21,100 million roubles in 1966, for example. These sums are made up first and foremost of profits from enterprises and economic organisations, as well as taxes, state duties and other revenues. The executive committees of local Soviets draw up their budgets with public knowledge, such budgets and the expenditures involved being approved at sessions of the Soviets.

The expenditure on these budgets is directed, in the main, to meeting local needs connected with public services. We quote below some figures from the 1967 Moscow plan for municipal development: 120,000 flats, 32 schools, 250 public service establishments and 22 gyms to be built and 200 shops, 175 cafes, 25 clinics and 10 cinemas to be opened.

The budgets of local Soviets are growing year by year, denoting the general rise in the country's economy and culture and the enhanced role of local Soviets in state life.

WHAT IS THE PUBLIC'S ROLE IN RUNNING THE STATE?

The participation of the public in the running of the state has assumed great proportions in the USSR. Various kinds of public committees and councils operate in literally every field of endeavour, from production to institutions of culture and art. Certain functions of even such state organs as the militia and the courts have been transferred to public organisations.

The Soviet state attempts to draw all citizens into running the affairs of the state. This is promoted by a rising standard of living and culture, better ways of representing the people, an extension of the practice of nation-wide discussion of draft laws, the systematic renewal of the composition of directing bodies, and, of course, by an actual democratic system of control with the participation of millions of working people in all spheres of social and state life.

The enhanced role of the public in running the state reflects the basic tendency in the development of Soviet society—the gradual transformation of the state into self-government of the people.

WHAT IS PUBLIC CONTROL?

This is a nation-wide system of control bodies: the USSR Public Control Committee, Public Control Committees in Union and Autonomous Republics, territories, regions, districts and towns; as well as groups and posts of public-control at village Soviets, at industrial enterprises, collective and state farms, organisations and military units.

The Soviet system of control is based on Lenin's directions that broad popular masses should take part in control and inspection. All public control committees include representatives of Party organisations, Soviets of Working People's Deputies, trade unions, youth organisations, the press and staffs of industrial enterprises and institutions. On recommendation of public organisations wage and salary workers and collective and state farmers are invited to work as voluntary inspectors for the public control committees.

Over six million working people have been elected to public control groups and posts — a truly popular control system.

The public control bodies work in close cooperation with control posts of the youth organisations known as «Komsomol Searchlight» with some three million participants, and hundreds of thousands of voluntary trade union controllers.

The main task of the public control bodies is to check on the spot implementation of the Party and Government directives and maintenance of state discipline and socialist legality. Their job is to promote and encourage progressive initiative, bring to light and eliminate shortcomings and fight bureaucracy, inefficiency and dishonesty.

Public control bodies have extensive authority. They have the right to call to account any government or economic executive, to determine the measures and time limits of rectifying shortcomings, prevent illegal actions and mismanagement, suspend decisions issued by executives, demote or relieve them of their posts, impose financial or disciplinary sanctions and initiate legal proceedings against offenders.

However, public control, in Lenin's words, should not so much «catch» and «expose», as correct and warn, thus helping the Party, Government and economic organisations

improve the situation in a certain sector of communist construction.

Public control bodies make extensive use of the press, radio, television and other media of publicity. They report on their work to general meetings of factories and institutions.

Mass scale, continuity and broad publicity ensure high prestige and efficiency of public control.

Civil Rights and Liberties

WHAT ARE THE MAIN CONSTITUTIONAL RIGHTS ENJOYED BY SOVIET CITIZENS?

If we compare the Soviet Constitution with the Universal Declaration of Human Rights adopted by the United Nations it is clear that all the democratic rights and liberties of the Declaration are incorporated in the Soviet Constitution. What is more, many rights and liberties laid down in the Constitution are more extensive. And the chief thing is that they are not merely proclaimed, but are guaranteed by the social and political conditions obtaining in the USSR.

WHO HAS THE RIGHT TO VOTE FOR DEPUTIES TO BODIES OF STATE POWER?

Under the USSR Constitution, every Soviet citizen who has reached the age of 18 enjoys this right, irrespective of

race or nationality, sex, religion, education, domicile, social origin, property status or past activity, the only exception being persons who have been legally certified insane.

WHO IS ELIGIBLE FOR ELECTION TO BODIES OF STATE POWER?

Except for age anyone who is entitled to vote can be elected to the Soviets: the minimum age for a deputy to the USSR Supreme Soviet is 23, for a deputy to the Supreme Soviet of a Union or Autonomous Republic—21 years, and a deputy to a local Soviet, from regional all the way down to a rural Soviet, must be 18 or over.

WHAT PROVISION IS THERE IN SOVIET LAW ABOUT THE RIGHT TO WORK?

Nowadays, for practically everyone, personal well-being, family welfare, a serene old age, in a word, everything of vital importance, no matter where one lives, depend on having a job with decent pay and no fear of the morrow. Soviet society is justly proud of what has been accomplished in this respect.

Article 118 of the USSR Constitution reads: «Citizens of the USSR have the right to work, that is, the right to guaranteed employment and payment for their work in accordance with its quantity and quality.» This is backed in practice by the whole system of socialist planned economy, which is free from crises and is developing at an increasing rate. These conditions preclude unemployment, and everyone can find work to his liking.

IS THE RIGHT TO REST AND LEISURE GUARANTEED?

No administrator may violate this constitutional right of every citizen. The right to rest and leisure is guaranteed by the seven-hour working day (a six- or four-hour working day in some professions and for adolescents) and the annual paid leave. Trade unions watch closely to make sure

that labour legislation is observed and they endeavour to provide the most favourable material conditions for enjoying this right. To achieve this end they are extending the network of holiday homes, sanatoria and clubs; they are building more stadiums and sports fields, tourist camps and other facilities.

WHAT PROVISIONS ARE MADE FOR OLD AGE AND IN CASE OF SICKNESS AND DISABILITY?

This concern has been assumed by society. Wage and salary earners are entitled to old-age pensions, disability pensions and pensions in case of the loss of the breadwinner, to be paid from state funds. In the event of temporary disability they receive benefits from the state social insurance fund.

Collective farmers are entitled to pensions and benefits being paid from the All-Union Social Insurance Fund made up of contributions from the profits of collective farms and from annual state subsidies.

HAVE CITIZENS THE RIGHT TO STATE HEALTH PROTECTION?

Yes, they have. Everyone is provided with competent medical care free of charge. More and more new clinics, hospitals and sanatoriums are being built all the time.

The Soviet Union has one-fourth of all the doctors in the world (580,000) even though it has only seven per cent of the world's population.

DOES THE LAW SECURE THE RIGHT TO EDUCATION?

Yes, it is secured by Article 121 of the USSR Constitution. Eight-year schooling is compulsory for all children. Every form of education is free all the way from primary school through college.

HOW DOES FREEDOM OF SPEECH WORK IN PRACTICE?

The right to express their ideas on any question with regard to the state or society is secured by Article 125 of the USSR Constitution. To openly express one's opinion concerning shortcomings is not only the right, but also the duty of every Soviet citizen. Anyone including member of the Government or a minister may be criticised for his work at production meetings and in the press. Criticism to eliminate shortcomings is an important factor for accelerating progress. Though every Soviet citizen is entitled to freedom of speech, any propaganda inciting racial discrimination, hatred or a disdainful attitude to other nationalities is prohibited and punishable by law. The law prohibits any propaganda of war, of hatred between peoples.

HOW IS FREEDOM OF THE PRESS REALISED IN PRACTICE?

The working people and their organisations have the use of printing shops, stocks of paper and other materials needed for printing and publishing.

Newspapers, magazines, books and other publications are freely distributed throughout the country by subscription and through retail sales. The editorial boards of newspapers and magazines and the publishing houses themselves decide what they will put out and choose the material they need. The papers and magazines readily print letters, articles and other material from readers. The big Soviet papers receive several thousands letters daily. Newspapers and magazines carry thousands of interesting items relating experiences worthy of emulation, and criticising shortcomings in the work of establishments or individuals. They are written by people from every walk of life. The Soviet press belongs to the people, who is its owner and principal contributor.

HOW IS FREEDOM OF ASSEMBLY, INCLUDING THE HOLDING OF MASS MEETINGS, GUARANTEED?

Working people have the use of the best public buildings, such as clubs, theatres, gymnasiums, and other buildings suitable for holding assemblies, conferences and mass meetings.

Big demonstrations and mass meetings are held in stadiums, streets and squares, during which time the streets are closed to traffic.

Demonstrations to mark holidays, etc. are held on the initiative of public organisations. There are also spontaneous demonstrations, for instance, to greet the cosmonauts or either to protest against, or to approve and support some international event.

WHO MAY BECOME A HIGH OFFICIAL?

There are no titles or offices in the Soviet Union that are handed down. Every citizen starts out in life under more or less the same conditions and has the same opportunities. Position in society is determined by work, knowledge and abilities, and for this reason anyone with an aptitude for executive work may advance to an important post. This is equally true of plant managers or the post of Prime Minister.

HOW IS EQUALITY FOR WOMEN REALISED IN THE USSR?

Women in the USSR enjoy equal rights with men in all spheres of economic, government, cultural, political and other public activity. They take part in governing the state, receive equal pay for equal work, have equal opportunities for jobs.

The state allots funds for building nurseries and kindergartens, boarding schools, laundries, canteens, service shops of all kinds, all of which help to relieve women of a part of house work, and give them a real opportunity to study,

learn a trade or profession and choose an occupation to their liking.

At the beginning of 1966 there were 125,800,000 women in the Soviet Union, which is 54.2 per cent of the population. 37,700,000 women worked in the national economy (49 per cent of all wage and salary earners). Women account for 46 per cent of workers in industry, 55 per cent of those employed in state and administrative bodies, public organisations and cooperatives, 71 per cent of the staff in educational institutions, and 86 per cent of public health personnel.

Women make up about 60 per cent of all the specialists with a higher or specialised secondary education employed in the economy. In the Soviet Union 33 per cent of the engineers are women. 44 per cent of the students' body are women. Nearly 250,000 women are engaged in scientific work including 36,000 with a D. Sc. or M. Sc. degree. More than a thousand women are professors, 25 women are Members or Corresponding Members of the USSR Academy of Sciences.

The present Supreme Soviet of the USSR, the country's highest legislative body, had 425 women-deputies out of 1,517 deputies elected in 1966, which is more than in all the parliaments of the capitalist countries.

Every fifth member of the Communist Party is a woman.

IS THE STATE CONCERNED WITH THE UPBRINGING OF CHILDREN?

Children come first in this country and the government's efforts in this sphere are well known and appreciated. More and more nurseries and kindergartens are being opened to take care of children during the day while the parents are at work, or for most of the week if necessary. Parents pay only part of the cost of the children's upkeep in these institutions, and in some cases pay nothing at all. By 1970 state kindergartens and nurseries will accommodate 12,200,000 children. This will meet the needs of the urban population in children's institutions.

Eight-year schooling is compulsory. The country's 210,000 schools have an enrolment of 48,000,000. By 1970 an additional 22,000 schools will be built.

The children have the best of everything; magnificent Palaces of Pioneers, centres for young technicians and stations for young naturalists, sports stadiums, athletic fields, swimming pools, summer camps, etc.

ARE CITIZENS ENTITLED TO STATE-PROVIDED HOUSING WITH ALL AMENITIES?

The state not only recognises this right for every citizen but spends immense sums of money building flats for which the tenants pay a nominal rent that comprises no more than 4-5 per cent of a family's budget.

Eighty million people, nearly one-third of the country's population, have moved to new homes or otherwise improved their housing conditions in the past seven years (1959-65). During this period the state allocated thousands of millions of roubles for housing construction. The programme of housing construction outlined for 1966-70 will provide better housing and new flats for 65,000,000 people. It is planned to channel 45,000,000 thousand roubles for housing construction and erection of public buildings. The accelerated rate of construction will help to speedily solve the housing problem.

HOW IS INVIOABILITY OF THE HOME ASSURED?

Laws based on Article 128 of the USSR Constitution provide that no one may enter another person's home without that person's consent, except officers of the law in search of evidence or a criminal. But to do so they must have sufficient grounds plus a court warrant or the sanction of the procurator.

The law metes out stern punishment for infringement of this constitutional right.

CAN A TENANT BE EVICTED FROM HIS FLAT?

Only in exceptional cases strictly limited by law. Court proceedings may be instituted to evict a tenant living in a state-owned house if he regularly damages the living quarters or violates the peace of the neighbours by of-

fensive behaviour. Of course a normal person would not do such things. It should be pointed out that even on these grounds a tenant can only be evicted if measures of prevention and public persuasion have proved futile. Another cause may be prolonged absence (over six months) of the tenant or members of his family without valid reason, i. e. when the apartment is actually left unoccupied. Since it is always possible for the tenant to notify the apartment house management of an intended absence, it is easy to understand why such cases are practically never brought before the court. Still another reason may be that the tenant renting a state flat owns a house fit for habitation in the same locality. It is only on these grounds that eviction proceedings may be instituted. And these are valid reasons since there are still many people who are in need of good housing. It is considered unethical to receive a free flat from the state if one has a house of his own to live in. Finally the law can order families living in condemned housing to evacuate the premises. But that is a happy occasion since in such cases the state gives the family a new flat.

HOW IS PRIVACY OF CORRESPONDENCE GUARANTEED?

It is guaranteed by Article 128 of the USSR Constitution and Article 7 of the Statute of the Ministry of Communications. The law protects the privacy of every form of correspondence—letters, telegrams, money orders. There were censorship offices at post offices only during the war. Today, the personal correspondence of private citizens may be read if necessary for the purpose of establishing or discovering a crime. However, in such cases, which seldom occur, a court warrant or the sanction of the procurator is required.

MAY ONE FREELY MOVE TO ANOTHER LOCALITY?

Of course. This is entirely up to the individual. There are «conservatives,» who prefer to live in one town or village all their life. Then there are restless people who always crave a change. Some are always on the go and they have plenty of places to choose from. Workers and professional

people are needed everywhere: in torrid Central Asia, in the taiga areas, in the fertile steppes of the Ukraine, in the new towns inside the Arctic Circle, and elsewhere.

CAN A PERSON CHANGE HIS PLACE OF WORK?

Of course, he can. All one has to do is to give the management a fortnight's notice to enable them to find someone to replace the person who is leaving. However, if the management raises no objections it is possible to obtain a discharge immediately, before the expiration of the two-week period.

Marriage and the Family

WHAT IS THE AGE CONSENT TO MARRY?

A person must reach a certain age before getting married. Anyone has the right to marry at 18 or over. Marriages may be contracted under 18, however, in certain circumstances provided special permission is obtained from the parents and local authorities. In some republics brides may be younger. This is true of the Ukraine, Moldavia, Azerbaijan, and Armenia. In these republics a girl may marry at 16.

WHAT IS THE SIZE OF THE AVERAGE SOVIET FAMILY?

An average Soviet family consists of three or four persons. According to official statistics, the figure is 3.7 persons. The 1959 census showed that out of every 1,000 families there were 260 with two persons; 260 with three; 217 families with four; 134 with five; and 129 with six or more. In the Soviet Union, as in most countries, rural families

are bigger than urban families. There are differences in this respect among the republics, however. Estonia has the lowest average of three to a family and Armenia has the highest average, 4.7. While Estonia and Turkmenia have the same number of families, in all of Estonia only 218 families consist of ten or more persons, and in Turkmenia there are 7,508 such families.

According to the 1959 census, 71 per cent of the families were headed by men, and 29 per cent by women.

WHO OWNS PROPERTY JOINTLY ACQUIRED IN MARRIAGE?

Normally this question does not come up in the life of a married couple. It arises only in exceptional circumstances, when the family breaks up, usually through divorce. That is when the law on marriage must be consulted. According to law, property jointly acquired in marriage is regarded as the property of both partners. The practice is usually to divide the property equally between the husband and wife in the event of a divorce.

This applies to a house, summer cottage, car, furniture, jewelry and not to personal things, for instance, clothes, or property which the husband or wife had before marriage.

HOW ARE «MIXED MARRIAGES» REGARDED IN THE USSR?

Soviet law places no restrictions on marriage in respect to social, religious, national, or racial differences. «Mixed marriages» are common. No one is surprised when a Kirghiz youth marries a Russian girl, or when there are Russians, Jews, Ukrainians, Tatars, or any of the country's 100 nationalities united by marriage in one family.

A child is given the father's or mother's nationality.

WHAT ARE WEDDING CEREMONIES LIKE?

When a young couple decide to get married they submit an application to this effect to the Department of Civil Records of the local Soviet or to one of the Wedding Palaces created specially for this purpose in Moscow, Leningrad, and many other cities. Within a few days the bride and the groom come to the Department or the Wedding Palace, accompanied by their relatives and friends, for the official registration of their marriage. They sign their names in a register. Their signatures are certified by the clerk in charge and the witnesses. A marriage certificate is then issued to the newlyweds and they are congratulated by all present.

An old custom of exchanging wedding rings was revived after World War II. Young people often wear wedding rings. Older folk, particularly men, seldom do.

Although wedding ceremonies vary among the different nationalities they are nearly always accompanied by a wedding feast at the home of the bride or groom. Gifts are exchanged. There may be traditional games, with singing and troika rides. The bride wears white. There are congratulations and toasts.

WHAT OBLIGATIONS DO PARENTS HAVE TO THEIR CHILDREN?

The prime obligation of parents is the upbringing of children. This is their duty and their right. Parents must support their children until they are 18, take care of their health, see to their education, and prepare them for socially useful work.

The state helps the parents in this. It provides financial aid, for instance, to large families and gives every child the opportunity to study. If parents, for some reason, are unable to take care of their children during the day, they can send them to nurseries and kindergartens. The state has been constantly extending the network of children's medical establishments, sports facilities, stadiums, children's theatres and cinemas.

The right of parents to bring up their children imposes certain obligations on them. It is understood that they must

mould the behaviour of their children in such a way as to conform to the ethics of socialist community life. Parents are responsible for damage done by their children up to the age of 14. Administrative measures may be used against parents who refuse to send their children to school.

Both parents are obliged to support their children. In case of divorce the parent who keeps the child can compel the other to pay alimony through the court: one-quarter of the parent's wages is deducted for the support of one child, one-third—for the support of two, and half—for the support of three or more.

WHAT OBLIGATIONS DO CHILDREN HAVE TO THEIR PARENTS?

The same as expected of children the world over: to love and obey their parents and behave well.

The question of the legal relations between adult children and parents never rises in most Soviet families. The law only intercedes those rare cases when children have been found ungrateful and utterly devoid of filial feelings. Children are obliged to support their aged parents—mothers from the age of 55 and fathers from the age of 60. Moreover they are obliged to support disabled parents at any age. A court decision may specify what sum is to be deducted from the wages of children as an allowance for the parents.

ARE THERE MANY DIVORCES? HOW ARE THEY OBTAINED?

The established divorce procedure is a deterring force. The spouse who sues for divorce must submit an application to that effect to the people's court. The divorce case first comes up in the people's court which takes steps to reconcile the parties. If the couple do not agree to reconciliation a higher court, provided there are sufficient grounds for divorce, may decide that the marriage shall be dissolved.

Divorce from a long-absent or mentally deranged spouse is considerably easier to obtain.

In the USSR there are 16 divorces for every 10,000 people, compared with 22 in the USA.

WHO KEEPS THE CHILD IN THE EVENT OF DIVORCE?

The court is guided exclusively by the child's interests in deciding this question. Both spouses have equal rights according to law. Yet, when there is disagreement on this matter between them, the child's need of maternal care is considered, and more often the decision is taken in favour of the mother. In each case the court makes a careful study of the circumstances, including the attitude of the parents to the child and of the child to them. No matter who is to keep the child the other parent is guaranteed the right to see the child after divorce.

ARE THERE MANY MARRIAGES?

Approximately 2,000,000 a year, which is more than 0.91 per cent of the population. The corresponding figure for the USA is 0.87, for the Federal Republic of Germany—0.88 and for France—0.71.

Here are some interesting comparisons.

According to the last census the percentage of married men was as follows:

Age group	USSR	USA
from 21 to 34	69.7 per cent	67.8 per cent
from 35 to 44	95.7 per cent	85.1 per cent
from 45 to 54	96.0 per cent	83.8 per cent
from 55 to 64	93.4 per cent	79.7 per cent
over 65	80.0 per cent	65.0 per cent

WHAT IS THE POSITION OF UNMARRIED MOTHERS?

The unmarried mother enjoys full respect and equal rights in Soviet society. The law of July 8, 1944 holds anyone liable to punishment for insulting an unmarried mother, or humiliating her in any way.

WHAT IS THE LEGAL STATUS OF CHILDREN BORN OUT OF WEDLOCK?

A child born out of wedlock is subject to no legal discrimination in childhood or as an adult. One can only speak of the material difficulties stemming from the fact that all the attention and expenses connected with the upbringing of this child rest upon the mother alone. The state provides material aid for the unmarried mother either by paying her a money allotment or, if the mother so desires, by raising the child in a children's home free of charge.

IS THERE A HIGH PERCENTAGE OF SINGLE MEN AND WOMEN?

225 out of every 1,000 men and women from 25 to 60 years of age are single, the ratio being 35 men to 190 women. The figure does not, of course, indicate that women are less interested in having families, but rather reflects the sad effects of the last war when many men who might have become husbands and fathers perished. There will always be a certain percentage of single people irrespective of historical changes and social transformations.

CAN PROPERTY BE INHERITED IN THE USSR?

Cases of property declared escheat and hence transferred to the state are very rare. This can happen only when there are no heirs. As a rule all personal property is inherited.

When a person dies intestate the heirs, according to the law, are firstly the children of the deceased, including adopted children, the widowed spouse, parents or those who adopted him, as well as a child born posthumously. In the absence of heirs of the first category, a legacy is inherited by brothers and sisters of the deceased and grandparents. It may also be inherited, according to the law, by incapacitated persons (regardless of whether they are relatives of the deceased or not) who were dependents of the deceased no less than one year prior to his death. Grandchildren and great-grandchildren receive an equal share of the legacy that would have been inherited by a deceased parent.

MAY PROPERTY BE INHERITED BY WILL?

According to law, each of the heirs receives an equal share of the inheritance, if there is no will. Soviet citizens may will all or part of their property to any person or persons irrespective of whether he, she or they are classified as heirs in the absence of the will or not. A citizen may deprive all the heirs of the right to inherit or determine, for instance, who is to inherit the house, who the car, and who is to receive merely parental blessings. But the law protects the rights of the incapacitated or minors. They inherit, regardless of the content of the will, a definite share not less than two-thirds of what they would have been entitled to if the person had died intestate. Property may also be willed to the state or social institutions. Such wills are often made by the owners of works of art. They frequently leave their pictures to art galleries or museums.

WHO PROTECTS THE PROPERTY RIGHTS OF FOREIGNERS?

Inyurkollegia (the Collegium of Lawyers of the Moscow Bar), an experienced body of lawyers serving Soviet clients' interests abroad and foreign clients' interests in the USSR, is not a state body, but a professional association. Apart from conducting cases in which Soviet citizens inherit property from abroad, or in which foreigners inherit property in the Soviet Union, this association also protects the interests of foreign trade, industrial, or shipping firms in their dealings with Soviet organisations. The Collegium, moreover, handles cases involving the payment of alimony to Soviet citizens by foreign citizens, and vice versa.

The Collegium maintains extensive ties with lawyers in many countries. Its permanent representatives in 26 countries handle the civil cases of Soviet citizens and organisations on the principle of reciprocity.

Like all their colleagues, the attorneys of the Collegium receive their fees from their clients. The Collegium handles thousands of cases every year, most of them pertaining to legacies.

CAN CITIZENS OF THE USSR INHERIT PROPERTY FROM CITIZENS OF FOREIGN COUNTRIES?

There are no obstacles to this. If the testator did not know the exact address of his relatives, the Collegium publishes the following notice in the newspapers: «Concerning the legacy of N. in such and such country his grandson M. or any other relatives are asked to come forward.» It goes without saying that N. will hear of this promptly and turn up at the address of the Collegium at 13 Tverskoi Boulevard, Moscow.

Here are some examples. Two sisters, Matilda Woolfson and Frederica Jacoby living in Riga, Latvia, inherited 34,000 marks through the sale of bonds belonging to their deceased brother, Mangus Feitelberg, formerly a Professor of the University of Heidelberg (the Federal Republic of Germany). Two other sisters, Anastasia Krutova and Praskovia Kozlova-Krutova, came to Moscow from the Saratov Region to obtain the legacy of 45,294 dollars inherited from their brother John Krutov of Cleveland, USA.

CAN A FOREIGNER INHERIT THE PROPERTY OF A SOVIET CITIZEN?

If a citizen of the Soviet Union has willed his property to a citizen of another country the Foreign Trade Bank of the USSR transfers the value of the legacy in foreign currency to the heirs. Such remittances are carried out without obstruction to all countries with which the Soviet Union has reached agreement on reciprocity in matters of inheritance. In practice this applies to all countries with which the USSR maintains normal diplomatic relations.

When Tamara Gabbe, a children's writer, died in 1960, it turned out that she had no relatives in the Soviet Union. Her sister Helena Laustarinen who lived in Finland, inherited the property of the Soviet writer amounting to 5,600,000 Finnish marks. Hilda Sellis of Baltimore (USA) received 5,278 dollars through the services of the Collegium, as her inheritance from Soviet citizen Erich Espe of the town of Pyarnu. These examples were drawn at random from the extensive practice of the Collegium.

*ARE SOVIET CITIZENS FREE TO MARRY
FOREIGNERS?*

There was a time when such marriages were forbidden. Now marriages with foreigners are registered in the usual way by the Department of Civil Records of any local Soviet. All that is needed is love and mutual consent.

Religion

IS THERE FREEDOM OF CONSCIENCE IN THE USSR?

The briefest and clearest answer to this is given in Article 124 of the Constitution of the USSR:

«In order to ensure to citizens freedom of conscience, the church in the USSR is separated from the state, and the school from the church. Freedom of religious worship and freedom of anti-religious propaganda is recognised for all citizens.»

Each person himself decides his attitude to religion. Whatever the decision may be, it plays no role in his civil life. No reference to religion is made in passports, questionnaires, population census cards, and other official documents. That is why it is difficult to say how many believers are there in the Soviet Union.

All religious organisations in the country enjoy equal rights and opportunities, irrespective of whether they have many or few adherents. It stands to reason, however, that the state cannot remain indifferent towards those religious

groups and sects which, under the guise of worship, engage in antistate practice or preach a cult which is connected with the moral and physical corruption of people, or encroach on civil and social rights.

WHAT RELIGIONS ARE THERE IN THE SOVIET UNION?

The denomination with the largest number of adherents in the USSR is the Russian Orthodox Church. The Georgian Church, though also Orthodox, is autonomous; it is headed by the Patriarch-Catholicos of All Georgia.

Moslems constitute the second largest denomination. The overwhelming majority of the Moslems in the USSR are Sunnites, but there are a good many Shiites, mostly in the Azerbaijan Republic.

The USSR has a comparatively small number of Roman Catholics, mainly in the Latvian and Lithuanian Republics, the western parts of the Ukraine, and Byelorussia. Most worshippers in Latvia and Estonia are Lutherans.

There also are Baptists; Synagogues function in cities and places where there is a sizeable Jewish community.

Echmiadzin, in Armenia, is the historic spiritual centre of the very ancient Armenian (Gregorian) Church headed by the Supreme Patriarch-Catholicos of all Armenians. This Church has many eparchies in other countries, notably, in the Near East.

Groups of Buddhists can be found in the Asian parts of the USSR and in the Kalmyk Autonomous Republic.

Other denominations with much smaller numbers of adherents are the Reformists, Seventh-Day Adventists, Mennonites and Methodists.

WHAT ARE THE RELATIONS BETWEEN THE CHURCH AND THE STATE, AND THE SCHOOL AND THE CHURCH?

The church is separated from the state, meaning that all churches and religions enjoy equal rights. The state does not interfere in their internal affairs or finance them

in any way. The state demands that they observe legislation on religion. Incomes received by church are not liable to taxes. The church, on its part, has no right to interfere in the affairs of the state. No one may use his religious beliefs as an excuse for shirking his civic duties, military duty because believers enjoy the same rights as everyone else.

The Council for Affairs of Religious Cults has been set up under the Soviet Government to maintain contacts between the state and religious bodies. Members of this Council have no right to interfere in the internal affairs of religious bodies. The main function of the Council is to supervise observation of legislation on religion, examine questions raised by religious bodies before submitting them to the Government, in those cases which require the participation of state authorities and institutions, for instance the provision of premises for prayers, studies and other purposes, registration of new religious societies, provision of printshops.

Since the church is separated from the state and the school is separated from the church religion is not taught in state schools.

ARE BELIEVERS DISCRIMINATED AGAINST IN ANY WAY?

Believers and clergymen enjoy all rights and freedoms guaranteed by the USSR Constitution. Soviet law stands guard over the rights of believers. Any offence of believers' sentiments or any discrimination is punishable. For instance, a decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the Russian Federation says that «refusal to hire or admit to school, discharge from work or school, deprivation of any privileges and preferences granted by law or any other major restrictions of citizens' rights on grounds of their religious attitude» is a criminal offence.

If the bride and the groom are religious, they are free to get married in church.

The same goes for parents who wish to baptise their child.

Special permission from the local authorities is required only for religious ceremonies and processions in the streets.

No permission is required for funeral rites at the cemetery and for processions within the boundaries of the church grounds.

WHO SUPPORTS THE CHURCH AND CLERGY?

The church and clergy depend entirely upon their own incomes derived from voluntary donations of their congregations and the funds of religious societies. The government decree of April 8, 1929, concerning religious associations defines a religious society as a local association of believers 18 years of age and older, of the same faith, cult, or creed, numbering not less than 20 people, who have come together to jointly satisfy their religious needs.

By agreement with the local state authorities, religious bodies enjoy the free use of the land on which their churches are situated. All expenses for maintaining and repairing churches are taken care of by the congregations. The clergy is paid according to rules set up by the church hierarchy from money derived from voluntary donations of the congregations, from the fees paid for various services (baptisms, marriages, prayers for the dead).

Religious bodies have the right to publish journals, prayer books and other religious literature. Religious centres and societies have the right to lease, build or purchase premises for the purposes of worship and set up candle factories and workshops for manufacturing religious objects.

A house of worship can be closed down by the Government only if the congregation is too small to form a religious society of their own and maintain their church. The final decision on this matter is passed by the central body of state authority, which examines the matter together with the highest religious bodies.

WHAT IS THE STATUS OF THE RUSSIAN ORTHODOX CHURCH?

The Russian Orthodox Church has existed independently since 1448. It is at present headed by Alexii, Patriarch of Moscow and All Russia. He has an advisory body, the Holy Synod, composed of the most authoritative metropolitans.

The Russian Orthodox Church has a large number of parishes in other countries—the United States of America, Canada, France, China, Bulgaria, Israel.

The Russian Orthodox Church is governed solely by its own hierarchy. It publishes a monthly *Journal of the Moscow Patriarchy*.

WHAT IS THE STATUS OF CATHOLICS?

There are several Roman Catholic dioceses and archdioceses, possessing an adequate number of churches. Catholic priests are trained in Lithuania. Some of them continue their theological education in the seminaries of the Vatican.

There are Catholic churches in the bigger cities aside from the traditional areas where there are believers. For instance, there is the St. Louis Cathedral in Moscow, and churches in Kishinev, Kiev, Leningrad and other cities.

WHAT IS THE STATUS OF MOSLEMS?

The religious life of followers of Islam is guided in the USSR by four ecclesiastical centres: the Moslem Religious Board of Central Asia and Kazakhstan in Tashkent, the Moslem Religious Board of the European part of the USSR and Siberia in Ufa, the Moslem Religious Board of the North Caucasus and Daghestan in Buinaksk and the Moslem Religious Board of the Transcaucasus in Baku.

Sunnite Muftis are at the head of all the Boards, except the Transcaucasian Board, uniting Shiites, which is headed by Sheikh-ul-Islam. The Moslems take part in pilgrimages to the holy cities of Mecca and Medina.

WHAT IS THE STATUS OF BUDDHISTS?

Buddhism came to what is now the Soviet Union from Tibet in the 17th and 18th centuries. Lamas reside in Buddhist monasteries in the Buryat Autonomous Republic and Chita Region.

The Bandido Khamba-Lama is the head of the Buddhists and the Buddhist Religious Board. Buddhists travel to other countries to take part in congresses of their fellow worshippers.

ARE JEWS FREE TO WORSHIP?

The position of Judaism is in no way different from that of the Russian Orthodox Church, Islam, Catholicism or any other faith. All religious communities, including the Jewish, have equal opportunities for conducting public worship. There are some 100 synagogues, nearly 300 minyans or prayer houses, and an ecclesiastical school (Moscow) in the USSR.

WHAT IS THE STATUS OF BAPTISTS?

In 1944 Baptists merged with Evangelic Christians, and in 1945 they were joined by the Pentecostal Church to form the biggest religious sect in the USSR, the Church of Evangelic Christian-Baptists. It is headed by the All-Union Council of Evangelic Christian-Baptists in Moscow which publishes the journal *Bratsky Vestnik* (Herald of Brotherhood).

ARE THERE MONASTERIES IN THE USSR?

The better-known monasteries and nunneries of the Russian Orthodox Church are the Troitse-Sergievskaya Lavra (Monastery) in Zagorsk (near Moscow) and Pochaevskaya Lavra (in the western part of the Ukraine). There is a Catholic nunnery in Aglon (Latvian SSR), a monastery of the Armenian (Gregorian) Church—in Echmiadzin (Armenia), Buddhist monasteries in the Buryat Autonomous Republic and Chita Region.

ARE THERE MANY ECCLESIASTICAL SCHOOLS IN THE USSR?

The Russian Orthodox Church has 8 seminaries and two academies in Zagorsk near Moscow and in Leningrad; the Roman Catholic Church has two seminaries (in Riga and

Kaunas); the Armenian Apostolic Church has an academy in Echmiadzin near Yerevan; the Moslems have two madrasahs (in Bukhara and Tashkent) and the Jews have a yeshibah in Moscow. The Lutheran Churches in Estonia and Latvia train clergymen at theological courses. Some ecclesiastical schools send their graduates to perfect their knowledge at the famous religious centres abroad.

The subjects taught in Soviet ecclesiastical schools are the same as in similar institutions abroad. In addition the USSR Constitution is studied.

Religious bodies publish textbooks, collections of religious texts, theological works and other religious literature.

WHAT INTERNATIONAL TIES ARE MAINTAINED BY THE CLERGY?

The Russian Orthodox Church maintains close contacts with the clergy and religious bodies of other countries. Members of the Moscow Patriarchy take part in the work of the World Council of Churches. Delegations of the Russian Church often travel to other countries. For instance, Patriarch Alexii has visited Athens, Belgrade, Bucharest and other capitals. Archbishop Nikodim, who heads the foreign relations department of the Moscow Patriarchy, has visited France, Belgium, India, the United Arab Republic, Greece and other countries. Russian Orthodox Church members Archpriest Borovoi and Bishop Kotlyarov attended the Second Vatican Ecumenical Council as observers.

Delegations of the Evangelical Christian-Baptists' Church have on different occasions travelled to see Baptists in the United States, Britain and countries of Northern Europe. Groups of Baptist youth have continued their studies at theological colleges in Britain. Soviet Moslems are frequent guests of fellow worshippers in Arab countries. Some attended the Moslem University of Al-Azkhar in Cairo. Buddhists of the USSR have contacts with religious centres and religious bodies of the Mongolian People's Republic, Japan and other countries.

Clergymen of all religions in the USSR meet with many of their foreign counterparts at peace conferences and sessions.

CAN A RELIGIOUS PERSON BE ADMITTED TO THE COMMUNIST PARTY OF THE SOVIET UNION?

No, he cannot. Back in 1905 the founder of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, V. I. Lenin, wrote: «We insist that religion be a private concern with respect to the state, but on no account can we regard religion as a private matter with respect to our own Party».

Marxist materialistic philosophy, which Communists uphold, is basically opposed to idealistic philosophy and religious teaching.

IS ANTI-RELIGIOUS PROPAGANDA CONDUCTED IN THE USSR?

All Soviet citizens are at liberty to freely perform religious rites or to freely conduct anti-religious propaganda. Without this, there would be no real freedom of conscience. If nobody is prevented from believing in God, how can anyone be prevented from being an atheist and proving the incompatibility of religion and modern science?

The journal *Nauka i Religiya* (Science and Religion), published in Moscow, contains materials proving the harm of religious prejudices, the bankruptcy of religious philosophy and the moral harm religion causes. The «Znaniye» (Knowledge) Society, a nation-wide voluntary organisation for dissemination of knowledge, also devotes considerable attention to atheist propaganda. It sponsors anti-religious public lectures, with believers and clergymen having the opportunity to put forth their arguments at these lectures.

Anti-religious propaganda, both oral and printed, is educational in nature, without mocking at the sentiments of believers or the objects of their worship.

It should be pointed out that the overwhelming majority of Soviet people are atheists. The materialist world outlook prevails in Soviet society.

Justice

WHAT ARE THE FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES OF SOVIET JUSTICE?

All citizens, irrespective of social status or office, are equal before the law. This equality is unaffected by nationality, Party membership or religious beliefs.

All courts in the USSR are elected. The judges are independent and subject only to the law. This is a constitutional principle. It ensures objective examination of the case. The judges hand down decisions only in keeping with their internal conviction, in compliance with the law and in strict conformity with the circumstances of the case as established by the court of law.

Strict observance of legality and personal immunity are ensured by the following legislative norms: no authority can subject any person to arrest except by decision of the court or with the sanction of the procurator; no person can be regarded guilty or subjected to legal punishment until sentence has been passed by a court of law; all citizens are equal before the law and before the court; legal proceedings

are conducted in the language understood by the persons involved in the trial, and all concerned are granted the opportunity to be fully acquainted through an interpreter with the materials of case and also the right to express themselves in their native language; trials are public, the accused has the right to defence.

Soviet legislation makes it binding on the court, the procurator and investigator to ensure all-round, complete and fair examination of all the circumstances of the case to establish both the aggravating and extenuating circumstances.

Soviet justice protects the social and state system, the socialist economic system and socialist property, the political, labour, residential, property and other personal rights and interests of citizens. It also ensures the strict and unconditional observance of laws.

HOW IS THE JUDICIAL SYSTEM ORGANISED?

The first and principal link in the judicial system is the district people's court.

People's judges are elected for a term of five years by citizens in each district on the basis of universal, direct and equal suffrage. Candidates are nominated at special meetings of public organisations—Party, trade union, youth, cultural organisations. Every citizen of 25 and over, irrespective of his property or social status, is eligible for election as a people's judge.

As a rule, citizens pick candidates from among those who have worked in judicial bodies. Approximately 75 per cent of people's judges are graduate lawyers who have worked in judicial bodies for at least ten years. Three out of every 10 judges are women. Most often judges belong to the nationality predominating in the particular locality as judicial proceedings are conducted in the language spoken by the majority of the population in the given area. Defendants who do not know the language are provided with an interpreter.

The bulk of the criminal and civil cases are heard in people's courts. Their decisions may be taken to the next higher courts, to the city courts (in big cities), regional, territorial courts, courts of the National Areas and Autonomous Regions, and Supreme Courts of the Autonomous Republics. These courts are also courts of the first instance for trying exceptionally important criminal cases and civil suits which come within their competence. Next comes the Supreme Courts of the Union Republics, and the Supreme Court of the USSR, the highest judicial body of the country. The Supreme Courts of the Union Republics and the Supreme Court of the USSR supervise the activity of the courts of the Union Republics and the USSR, respectively, within the limits outlined by the law.

The regional, territorial, city courts and the courts of the National Areas and Autonomous Regions are elected by the respective Soviets of Working People's Deputies.

The Supreme Courts of the Autonomous and Union Republics and the Supreme Court of the USSR are elected by the respective Supreme Soviets of Working People's Deputies.

All judges are elected for a term of five years and are accountable to the Soviets of Working People's Deputies.

People's court judges are also accountable to their electors. The judges must report back regularly to their constituents on their own work and on the work of their court. Should a judge fail to justify his electors' confidence, which happens very seldom, he will be recalled and a new election held.

HOW ARE CASES TRIED?

First of all, it should be stated that examination in court is conducted with utmost thoroughness and trials are public.

There can be a closed trial to preclude divulgence of state secrets, in case of sex crimes, or other cases of an intimate nature or in cases where juveniles (under sixteen) are on trial. Decisions and verdicts of the court in all cases are announced in public.

In criminal cases, before the case is heard in court, there is a preliminary investigation, conducted by investigators from the Procurator's Office or from State Security bodies.

The investigators are required to ascertain all the facts, those for and against the accused and where the investigator does not find enough facts warranting a trial the case is dismissed.

In recent years the ties between the judicial bodies and the public have considerably expanded and become stronger. Suffice it to say that every fourth case is now considered by assize courts—directly at enterprises and offices and in the countryside; every fifth case is heard with the participation of public prosecutors and public defence lawyers.

A public trial is not only conducive to a just verdict, but also helps the court to carry out its educational function.

HAS THE ACCUSED THE RIGHT TO DEFENCE?

This right is confirmed by Article 111 of the Constitution. Should this right be violated the sentence handed down will be quashed by the higher court.

The accused has full right to competent defence. He can submit explanations in respect to the charges preferred against him and bring forth evidence in self-defence, he may file a petition, study all the materials referring to the case, issue challenges and submit complaints against the actions or ruling of the investigator, procurator or the court.

The court must present the accused with a copy of the indictment at least three days before the trial. During the sessions, like all persons involved in the case, the accused enjoys equal legal rights in respect to presentation of evidence, participation in investigation thereof and filing of petition. The accused also has the right to the final plea.

The accused may defend himself or retain any lawyer he wishes to defend him. He may also be defended in court by a public defence lawyer (which in the Soviet Union means a representative of the enterprise in which the accused is employed). Public defence lawyers are usually represented at trials today.

In cases in which a procurator appears (and also in cases where the accused is a minor, blind, deaf or dumb), the participation of defence counsel is required by law.

WHAT ROLE DOES THE LAWYER PLAY AND WHAT ARE HIS RIGHTS?

Lawyers are associated in a collegium. The governing bodies of the collegium are the general meeting of the collegium and the presidium elected by it. Admission to the collegium is open to Soviet citizens who are graduate lawyers or have practical experience of working in judicial bodies.

Lawyers giving advice on legal matters draw up complaints and applications, represent litigants in court in civil cases, and defend the accused in criminal cases.

A lawyer retained by the accused or appointed by the court with his consent is allowed to participate upon completion of the preliminary inquest. In cases of juvenile delinquency and in cases involving persons who due to physical or mental defects are themselves unable to exercise their right to defence they participate from the time of presentation of the indictment. The lawyer has the right to examine all the materials bearing on the case, attend the interrogation of the accused, and other inquiries, challenge the judges or people's assessors, file complaints against the actions or ruling of the investigator, procurator or the court. It is the duty of the lawyer to establish and submit to the court all evidence clearing the accused or extenuating circumstances. Participation of the lawyer in the trial helps establish the truth and constitutes a substantial guarantee of a fair sentence.

WHAT PENALTIES ARE PROVIDED BY SOVIET LAWS?

They depend on the offence committed. In the Soviet Union the penalty is not just a means of retribution. It is also an attempt to reform and re-educate the transgressor.

For non-criminal offences, such as the use of foul language in a public place, persons found guilty may be sentenced to the following penalties which do not involve criminal liability: fines, corrective labour for a term of one or two months with a twenty per cent deduction from one's earnings, deprivation of liberty for 10-15 days.

Penalties for criminal offences are as follows: public censure, a fine, deprivation of the right to hold certain posts or to be engaged in certain activity, banishment, exile, corrective labour without deprivation of liberty, and imprisonment.

There are also two forms of punishment which are applied only as complementary sentence: deprivation of military or other special rank and confiscation of property.

The confiscation of property may only be applied in cases of grave crimes. The articles essential to the convicted person, as established by legislation, and those belonging to his family are not confiscated.

An important feature of Soviet criminal legislation is that it has at its disposal a wide range of penalties that do not involve deprivation of liberty. The most widespread are sentences of corrective labour without deprivation of liberty. They can be imposed for a period from one month up to one year.

Those sentenced to corrective labour usually undergo the sentence at their place of work (enterprise, office, collective farm). Deductions are made from their earnings of the amount fixed by the sentence, in no case exceeding 20 per cent of their earnings. The term of corrective labour is not included in the convicted person's seniority.

Banishment is defined as prohibiting a convicted person to live in certain places. Exile is his obligatory settlement in a definite area. Exile and banishment may not be inflicted on minors, it does not apply to expectant mothers and women with dependent children who are under age.

Deprivation of liberty may be imposed for a period not exceeding ten years, except for grave crimes and in the case of dangerous, hardened criminals where according to law a sentence of fifteen years can be passed. The Criminal Legislation of the Soviet Union has rejected a sentence of more than fifteen years' deprivation of liberty as not answering the purpose of reforming and re-educating the convicted persons and their future access to socially useful labour.

Persons sentenced to deprivation of liberty serve their sentence in prisons, or what is a more frequently the case, in corrective labour colonies with a definite regime (it is more strict for persons who have committed particularly grave crimes and for dangerous hardened criminals). In fixing the penalty the court takes into consideration the

degree of danger involved in the crime and the character of the convicted person.

Soviet legislation envisages the possibility of release on parole. If a sentenced person by his exemplary behaviour proves that he has reformed, the court may order his release on parole before the term is completed, provided no less than half or two-thirds of the sentence has been served, depending on the character of the crime committed.

Release on parole is not applicable to persons convicted of particularly grave crimes or dangerous hardened criminals.

Convicts are engaged in productive labour in places of confinement. They learn a trade and get wages. They also attend secondary schools. These measures are intended to enable them to return to a normal life and work. It is obligatory for the local authorities to find jobs for convicts who have served their term and help them get settled.

In exceptional cases for especially grave crimes the law provides for capital punishment. The death penalty may be imposed for high treason, espionage, terroristic acts, banditry, premeditated murder under aggravating circumstances, embezzlement of state funds or property in large quantities, speculation in foreign currency and other grave crimes which constitute an attempt on human life or the foundations of the socialist system.

The law does not permit the death penalty to be imposed on persons under 18 years of age at the time the crime was committed or on women who were expecting babies at the time of committing the crime or at the time sentence was passed or to be carried out.

In the USSR the death penalty has always been looked upon as a temporary, drastic measure and in certain periods of the country's life it had been rejected. There is no doubt that in the final end the death penalty will be abolished.

Courts of law are passing suspended sentences more often now. The number of suspended sentences comprises 12-14 per cent of the total number of sentences.

Under the law the accused may be placed in the custody of a public organisation or a collective of working people who pledge to reform the offender and prevent a repetition of the offence. This measure has proved very effective.

WHAT CIVIL CASES ARE MOST FREQUENTLY EXAMINED IN COURTS?

Civil cases make up some 85 per cent of all the cases examined in courts. These are mostly (71 per cent) disputes between private citizens. Nearly twenty-five per cent are arguments between citizens and organisations. And three per cent are disputes between collective farms or suits against state organisations. Disputes between organisations are examined by arbitration courts.

Labour disputes constitute 5.6 per cent, arguments over housing problems—8 per cent, damages—9 per cent, divorce cases—13.7 per cent, payment of alimony—20 per cent.

WHAT IS THE PROCEDURE FOR FILING AN APPEAL?

In a criminal case the sentence handed down by the court acquires legal force seven days after it is pronounced, and a judgement in a civil suit in ten days' time. During this period the person convicted, his lawyer, the plaintiff or defendant may file an appeal to a higher court. The procurator may submit a protest against the court's verdict within the same time limit. From the moment the appeal or protest is filed the execution of the sentence or judgement is automatically suspended until the higher court has reviewed the case. The court of the second instance thoroughly goes into the case irrespective of the reasons for the appeal, which may be contained in the protest or complaint. If the higher court finds that the sentence or ruling of the court of the first instance is correct it confirms the sentence which is then carried out. However, even after the sentence or decision of the court has acquired legal force it is possible to appeal to a higher court or procurator's office in contesting its legality. In this case if the officials in charge find that the sentence, or decision, is incorrect they refer the protest to the corresponding court which retries the case according to the letter of the law. The review of cases in accordance with this procedure ensures full possibility for rectifying any miscarriage of justice, it is designed to rule out the possibility of an unfounded sentence or decision remaining in force.

WHO EXERCISES SUPERVISION OVER THE JUDICIAL BODIES?

Great importance is attached to punctual observance of socialist legality. Each higher court, within its competence, exercises direction over the functioning of the lower courts, seeing to it that the norms of legality are observed and the sentences or decisions passed are just. The higher courts, as bodies exercising direction, have the right to review the case or refer it to a lower court either for retrial or for a new preliminary investigation, or to revise the sentence or decision. In revising the sentence the court of the second instance may commute the punishment, but cannot increase it.

It is the duty of the Procurator's Office to exercise legal supervision to ensure that no decision or ruling of Local Soviets, hence of the court, contravenes the law.

The procurator participates in the hearing of criminal cases and civil suits, prosecuting for the state in court. He exercises supervision to make sure that sentences and judgements are based on the law and warranted by the facts, and also that they are carried out. When the procurator disagrees with the sentence or judgement handed down he files a protest with the higher court, which has to examine the protest within 10 days.

WHAT ARE THE RIGHTS OF THE PROCURATOR GENERAL?

The Procurator General of the USSR is appointed by the Supreme Soviet of the USSR for a term of seven years. He exercises supreme supervision to ensure observance of the law on the entire territory of the country. Where, in his opinion, a particular ministry, institution, enterprise or local authority has issued a decision not conforming to the law he may suspend its operation until his protest is acted upon by a higher body of jurisdiction.

The Procurator General appoints for a term of five years the procurators of Union and Autonomous Republics and procurators of Territories, Regions and cities subordinated to republican authorities. He also sanctions for the same term of office the procurators of Union Republics.

The Procurator General and the procurators subordinated to him hear complaints lodged by private citizens and on checking them may take measures to restore the citizen's rights and see that his lawful interests are protected.

The Procurator's Office exercises supervision over the legality of actions by State Security services and bodies for the maintenance of public order. It is also responsible for the observance of socialist law in places of confinement.

All bodies of the Procurator's Office function independently and are subordinated only to the Procurator General of the USSR.

WHO ENSURES MAINTENANCE OF PUBLIC ORDER?

The militia. It is subordinated to the Ministry for the Maintenance of Public Order, which functions in each Union Republic. The guidance and coordination of the militia's entire work in combating crime throughout the country, is the responsibility of the USSR Ministry for the Maintenance of Public Order.

Many functions are performed by militia. It sees to it that laws, government decrees, and local ordinances regulating public order are observed; it maintains order in public places; it protects state, public and personal property and watches over the security of private citizens; it sees to it that traffic rules are obeyed; it issues car licenses and driving licenses. The militia works with the courts and the Procurator's Office: it investigates crimes before the cases are brought to court, takes measures to arrest criminals. Service in the militia is voluntary. The militia has special schools and colleges.

In all its work, the militia gets much popular support and cooperation through the public.

WHAT IS THE PEOPLE'S DRUZHINA?

It is a voluntary public order squad, made up of wage and salary earners, students and farmers, who patrol streets, parks, stadiums once a month in their free time. Today, there are many villages in the Soviet Union without a

single militiaman, their functions mainly being performed by the public.

These volunteer squads are not vested with administrative functions or powers, as is the militia. Public order squads primarily use means of persuasion, admonition and advice, but there are times when they have to take stronger measures. An offence is usually made public. A malicious offender is reported to his place of work or studies; the materials are handed over to a comradely court. If a criminal act has been committed squad members take the offender to the militia station.

The life, health and honour of a squad member is protected by law. Criminal offence against a squad member on duty is punished as severely as if committed against a representative of the authorities.

On the request of public organisations the most active squad members are given additional paid leave; they are awarded honorary diplomas, rewards and memorable presents.

WHAT ARE COMRADELY COURTS?

Comradely courts are formed at factories, offices, or institutions, or are set up by tenants of a large block of flats or several small ones, by students at their college. They hear cases of breaches of labour discipline, unworthy conduct in public places, or other anti-social actions, that are not a criminal offence.

As a rule, all members of the comradely court and those attending the hearing of a case by such a court know the accused personally and he knows them, which makes the hearing particularly down to earth. If the accused sincerely repents and publicly apologises to the collective or to the injured party, the comradely court generally regards public consideration of the case to be enough, but where necessary it may apply the following measures: issue a warning, issue a reprimand with or without publication in the press, impose a fine of up to 10 roubles, or raise the question of demotion or dismissal.

These courts are elected by a meeting of the collective by secret ballot for a one-year term. They are therefore composed of highly respected, responsible people with a good peal of experience.

ARE THERE POLITICAL CRIMES IN THE USSR?

Cases of treason or betraying the country are very rare. But sometimes a foreign intelligence service succeeds in getting a Soviet citizen engaged in espionage.

If these people repent and when there are no ill consequences, Soviet society forgives them, giving them the opportunity of atoning for their guilt by honest labour.

But where the interests of society and the state are foully betrayed the accused is brought to trial and, on conviction, may be condemned to a severe punishment.

WHAT IS AN «ECONOMIC CRIME»?

The morals of Soviet society are the morals of working people. He who does not work, neither shall he eat. Soviet law protects honest toilers from parasites, thieves and embezzlers who want to live at the expense of society. What the Western press sometimes calls «economic crimes» are criminal offences like large-scale misappropriation of state or public property, systematic violation of regulations covering foreign currency operations or counterfeiting or making a practice of counterfeiting constitute not merely «economic crimes», but grave crimes, harming the interests of the whole nation. Therefore, these crimes which are, as a rule, perpetrated by hardened criminals resorting to crafty methods are regarded as especially dangerous. By establishing a greater degree of liability for such crimes, which are rare in Soviet conditions, the legislative body sought above all to prevent them from being perpetuated.

DOES THE USSR HAVE A JURY SYSTEM?

In a Soviet court a case is tried by a judge and two people's assessors. The court decides all questions on a collective basis. The people's assessors of the city, regional, territorial courts, etc., including the Supreme Court of the USSR, are elected by the respective Soviets of Working People's Deputies.

People's assessors are elected by a show of hands at general meetings of wage and salary earners and farmers.

In the elections held in the Russian Federation in March 1965, 321,356 people's assessors were elected. Why so many? They only serve in courts two weeks a year, unless a trial happens to take longer.

People's assessors are men and women from all walks of life, and, obviously, most of them do not have a legal education. They are guided by their own experience, moral standards, intelligence and conscience, in accordance with the law.

Unlike the jurors who pass the verdict of guilty or not guilty and establish whether the accused should be given a lighter sentence the people's assessors enjoy equal rights with the judge in solving all questions within the competence of the court.

More than that, where the two assessors disagree with the judge as to the guilt of the accused or penalty to be imposed, their opinion prevails.

People's assessors are elected biannually. This means that millions of Soviet citizens take part in the administration of justice.

The Communist Party

WHY IS THERE ONLY ONE PARTY IN THE USSR?

There is only one Party because it expresses the interests and answers the needs of the entire people—workers, farmers and intellectuals.

There were quite a few different Parties in Russia before 1917: the Constitutional Democrats, Socialist-Revolutionaries and Mensheviks, to mention a few. All of them, like the Communist Party, had their own political and social platforms. But, in the wake of the three revolutions—in 1905, February and October 1917—the people found that the platform of the Communist Party was the only one that suited their interests. The Communist Party came out for peace, bread and liberty, while the other Parties were for continuing the imperialist war, having the landowners keep the land and the bourgeoisie the factories and banks. The people had had their fill of these Parties, preferring to support and follow the Communists, for never shall millions of people listen to the advice of a Party, if this advice is out of keeping with what their own experience tells them.

The first Soviet Government consisted of Communists and Left-Wing Socialist-Revolutionaries; the Left Wing

of this Party had split with the main body and recognised the Soviets. However, in the summer of 1918 they engineered an armed insurrection against the Soviet Government. They had a hand in assassinations of prominent Communists, seriously wounded Lenin, organised counter-revolutionary plots and helped the foreign interventionists. No wonder the people put an end to such activity.

And so there remained only one Party, the Communist Party, in the Soviet Union. Under its leadership one-time backward tsarist Russia became a land of advanced industry, science, technology and culture, a country with a constantly rising standard of living.

One-Party system is not an indispensable condition of socialism. It has come as a consequence of certain historical conditions in the Soviet Union. As for a number of other socialist countries, there are several Parties—the Workers' Party, Peasants' Party, etc.—which is also a result of the peculiarities of their social development.

These Parties actively cooperate in building the new society.

Whatever the system, be it a one-Party system or not, the important thing is who has power, and whose interests it serves. The policy pursued by the Communist Party of the Soviet Union is in the interests of the working people—workers, farmers, intellectuals. Therefore these people have no need for any other Parties.

WHY IS THE CPSU THE LEADING FORCE OF SOVIET SOCIETY?

To build communism is to blaze unexplored trails in history, and this cannot be done blindly. It requires purposeful guidance by a vanguard, equipped with a theory that correctly accords with life and its laws, is able to foresee the main trend of historical development. This leading force of Soviet society is the Communist Party which unites in its ranks the advanced and most socially conscious industrial workers, collective farmers and intellectuals.

To establish new, socialist forms of economy and set everything on new lines, the working people need the guidance of a Party whose policies, strategy and tactics are founded on scientific principles, on a knowledge of the objective

laws of social development, and on an accurate analysis of the class forces. They need the guidance of a Party which expresses the fundamental interests of the people and gives the workers a scientifically-based programme of the struggle, directing and organising their efforts.

The establishment of overall democracy is a major target of socialist change. Democracy of this scope cannot be decreed. It needs time to make the entire working people able to direct their destinies consciously. This cannot be done in haste. And here, too, a Party is needed to educate the broad masses «on the job» and, as their consciousness and experience increase, to effect genuine democracy for the first time in history, when the people shall rule indeed.

The dynamics of the development of Soviet society, the tremendously expanding scale of production and the complicated tasks of communist construction, enveloping all spheres of social endeavour, enhance the political and organisational role of the Communist Party.

HOW DOES THE CPSU EXERCISE ITS LEADERSHIP?

The leading role of the Party consists in helping the people apprehend developments clearly, make them realise the interdependence of social phenomena and see in what direction the latter develop as well as understand the role they themselves play in this development. The Party also organises the people's activities and gives them a purposeful character. The only possible methods the Party can use to influence the people are persuasion and exposition based on practical experience. The Communists' personal example is also of great importance.

The Party elaborates a scientifically-founded policy which shows the development trends of society as a whole, and it elaborates this policy not in separation from the people but in their very midst. For example, when the Draft of the new CPSU Programme was being discussed, over 500,000 meetings attended by nearly 73 million people were held. Suggestions and proposals were made not by Communists alone but by non-Party people as well. The Party aims to increase the initiative of the entire working

people; it insists that its every organisation should promptly support every progressive initiative coming from the people, that they should clear the way for these initiatives and spread everything that is new and progressive as a means of achieving an overall upsurge.

The Party conducts its work among the people in different localities through its bodies and committees. The Party Rules make it incumbent on the republican, territorial, regional, city and district organisations to carry on political and organising work among the people. These organisations are to mobilise the masses for the implementation of the tasks of the building of communism, a maximum development of industry and farming and fulfilling and overfulfilling the state plans so as to ensure a continuous growth of the people's material well-being and their cultural standards.

Towards the end of 1966, the CPSU numbered 335,000 primary Party organisations. These exist in nearly every collective of workers—at factories, on collective farms and at offices. Functioning as they do in every sphere of economy and culture, primary Party organisations play a decisive role in carrying out the Party's policies, which are an expression of the common social interest. They help the workers to acquire the techniques of public and social work and see to it that every Communist should both observe, and teach others how to observe, the Communist moral principles. Thus, the Party conducts its work among the people through its local organisations. But it also uses for the purpose of social organisations, and voluntary unions and societies numbering tens of millions of members. The Party does all it can to promote their independent initiative so that all the people take an active part in social and political activities.

Party leadership of the entire life of society means its political leadership. It is not the same as administrative management effected through orders and directions. Party organisations have no administrative rights with regard to other popular organisations. Nor do they need such rights. They enjoy the moral right, which is incomparably more enduring and substantial. This right has been won as a result of a long struggle, in the course of which all strata of the people have been able to see that the Party represents their interests.

The Party Rules state that Party organisations and their executive bodies direct the activities of the Soviets, trade unions, the Young Communist League, the co-operative societies and other public organisations through their Party units. It means that no Party body can impose its opinion or a line of behaviour on a congress, conference or meeting of one mass organisation or another, nor can it do so with regard to any elected body of such an organisation. Members of Party groups in mass organisations develop a common line of behaviour proceeding from the decisions adopted by the Party. But to carry out this line they must defend their views publicly and try to persuade their fellow-workers who are not Party members. In this they have to lean on their experience and such prestige as they may enjoy and on the Marxist-Leninist theory of the building of a new society.

WHAT WERE THE OBJECTIVES OF THE FIRST AND SECOND CPSU PROGRAMMES?

Each Communist Party Programme outlines objectives covering a whole chapter of history.

The goal of the first Programme, adopted at the Second Congress in 1903, was to overthrow tsarist autocracy and the bourgeois-landowning system and establish working-class government. This seemed a pipe dream to many at the time. The monarchists mocked even the very idea of workers and country bumpkins being able to govern. But it took only 14 years for the first Party Programme to materialise.

When the socialist revolution paved the way for the building of socialism in the USSR, the Party drafted its second Programme, which was adopted at its 8th Congress in 1919. The ultimate goal of this Programme was to build socialism. When 403 delegates representing a Party membership of 313,000 were discussing this new Programme in the unheated hall, the country was besieged on all sides and hunger and chaos were rife. However, the Communist Party had faith in the people's creative energies, in the possibilities and advantages of the new system. It was not mistaken. In the space of 20 years the Soviet Union became one of the world's greatest powers both in industrial production and technical level. Stupendous social transfor-

mations took place. Lenin's plan for the building of socialism was translated into life. The second Party Programme became an accomplished fact.

WHAT ARE THE GOALS OF THE THIRD CPSU PROGRAMME?

The Programme which the CPSU adopted at its 22nd Congress in 1961 furnishes the answers to key questions of the theory and practice of communist construction and supplies a scientific analysis of the basic problems of today.

The new CPSU Programme is a programme of communist construction.

The transition from socialism to communism requires the solution of three interrelated problems: the building of the material and technical basis of communism, the transformation of socialist relationships into communist relationships and education of all the working people in the spirit of lofty communist consciousness.

The building of the material and technical basis of communism is the prime task, requiring a gigantic development of the productive forces, large-scale machine production and a wide use of scientific and technical discoveries all of which will make it possible to achieve the highest productivity of social labour. This task will be settled by means of complete electrification of the country, complex mechanisation and automatisisation of production and the development of new economically effective sectors of production on the basis of scientific and technical progress. The building of the material and technical basis of communism requires a correct application of the economic laws of socialism and a scientific basis in economic management and planning.

Another major task on the path of communist construction is to form communist social relationships. A social system does not only signify a certain stage in the development of material production but also a certain system of relationships among people. Socialism eliminates relationships based on the exploitation of man by man, eliminates the exploiting classes and the causes engendering them. But under socialism there still exist class distinctions between workers and peasants, there are two forms of social ownership—public and cooperative-collective farm and a consi-

derable difference remains between manual and mental work. In the process of communist construction state and cooperative-collective farm ownership will merge into single ownership of the people, class distinctions will disappear along with the outstanding differences between town and countryside and between manual labour and brain work.

The political structure of society will also undergo a serious change. As socialist democracy develops further, more people come to participate directly in the management of society's affairs. The state bodies will gradually turn into bodies of communist self-government. The state itself will still exist for a lengthy period, for it is concerned with the tremendous tasks of economic and cultural development. It guards the rights and freedoms of the Soviet citizens, legality and socialist property. It is the duty of the state to guarantee the country's defence and security, develop advantageous cooperation with other countries, repulse imperialist aggression and safeguard the cause of peace. The Programme of the Soviet Communist Party reads:

«Historical development inevitably leads to the withering away of the state. To ensure that the state withers away completely, it is necessary to provide both internal conditions—the building of a developed communist society—and external conditions—the victory and consolidation of socialism in the world arena.»

The third task is the upbringing of a new man—the active builder of communism. Communist production and distribution is impossible without high labour efficiency, organisation, industry and communist consciousness.

Social labour plays a decisive part in developing the people. Communism is built by millions of people and it is in labour that their spiritual and moral make-up is formed. Joint work, comradely cooperation and mutual support promote the development of man's spiritual and physical qualities, talent and lofty moral traits.

The object of the Party Programme is to have every Soviet person profoundly understand the course and perspectives of social development and consciously build his life on communist principles.

On meeting the targets set by the new Party Programme Soviet society will attain prosperity unprecedented in the history of mankind and the world's highest standard of living.

WHAT IS THE MEMBERSHIP OF THE CPSU?

There were over 12.6 million people in the Soviet Communist Party in the middle of 1967. Some sixty years ago when the first Party Programme and Rules were adopted there were only a few thousand members. For its main part the membership of the CPSU reflects the social structure of Soviet society. Nearly 75 per cent of Party members work directly at plants and factories, in agriculture, transport, construction and trade; over 16 per cent work in the field of education, science, health protection and culture. Among Communists there are workers, farmers, engineers, doctors, teachers and agronomists—people of all professions, 970 out of every 1,000 Communists engaged in the national economy work directly at plants and factories. The working class is the main body in the Communist Party. 47.6 per cent of candidate members admitted between the 22nd (1961) and 23rd (1966) Party Congresses were workers.

Over two-thirds of the rest are workers in the engineering and technical professions and specialists in different sectors of the national economy. Half the Communists have a secondary, incomplete higher or higher education. More than half the Party members are people under 40 years of age. The make-up of the Party membership according to age clearly shows the close ties of the generations, of the Party's militant, revolutionary traditions.

The national make-up of the Party reflects the national composition of the country—there are representatives of 100 nationalities.

HOW IS THE CPSU ORGANISED?

The guiding principle of the Party's organisational structure is democratic centralism, which signifies:

- election of all leading Party bodies, from the lowest to the highest;

- periodical reports of Party bodies to their Party organisations and to higher bodies;

- strict Party discipline and subordination of the minority to the majority;

- the decisions of higher bodies are obligatory for lower bodies.

Democratic centralism implies the organic fusion of democracy and centralism. Democracy is essential to determine the will of the Party and its separate units whereas centralism and discipline are needed to ensure unity of action and implementation of Party decisions.

Consistent implementation of democratic centralism is a certain guarantee of Party unity which, according to Lenin, means expressing different views, ascertaining majority opinion, incorporating it in a decision and conscientiously implementing that decision.

Each Party member has the right to express his opinion at Party meetings, conferences and congresses and at gatherings of Party activists and naturally avails himself of this right. But should he fail to convince the majority of his comrades that he is right, should they feel his views are erroneous, he must obey the majority decision. The opinion of one man or a small group of people may be one-sided or mistaken. On the other hand, the opinion of a collective where every member can contribute his own personal experience and draw attention to aspects of the matter which the others had failed to note, is the correct one.

The Party Rules state that: «The supreme principle of Party leadership is collective leadership.» This means that the Party is against the cult of any individual and factionalism on the part of separate groups.

The Rules allow controversial or insufficiently clear issues to be discussed in each organisation or within the Party as a whole. A general discussion is deemed necessary if requested by several Party organisations at regional or republican level, if there is not a sufficiently firm majority in the Central Committee or if the Central Committee believes it necessary to consult the Party as a whole on any particular matter. The Party not only grants the right of criticism but also obliges its organisations to develop it in every possible way in order to eliminate shortcomings.

The Rules guarantee every Communist the full freedom to criticise any matter or any Party member. Any infringement of this right is condemned and anyone who does so is strictly penalised to the point of expulsion from Party membership.

WHAT MAKES UP CPSU FUNDS?

CPSU funds are derived from membership dues and incomes from materials published. Membership dues account for some 65 per cent of the Party budget. The share of funds derived from publishing is increasing annually. The Central Auditing Commission supervises the due and correct receipt and disbursement of Party funds and reports to the Party Congress.

HOW ARE PARTY BODIES ELECTED?

Primary Party organisations set up at industrial enterprises, collective and state farms and various state institutions make up the Party's foundation.

The highest body of the primary Party organisation is the general meeting which elects a bureau or committee to conduct current affairs. The primary organisations delegate representatives to the district conference which elects the district Party committee. The regional and territorial committees are elected at the respective conferences. The Congress of the Communist Party of a Union Republic elects its Central Committee while the all-Union Congress of the Party elects the Central Committee of the CPSU and the Central Auditing Commission.

All Party members have the unlimited right to challenge candidates and criticise them, when the candidate list is being discussed. Election is by secret ballot.

WHAT IS THE TOP PARTY BODY?

The supreme body is the Party Congress which is convened at least once every four years. The Congress hears and approves the reports of the Central Committee and the Auditing Commission, determines the Party line in matters of home and foreign policy, examines the most important questions of communist construction, endorses and amends the Programme and the Rules, and elects the Central Committee and the Central Auditing Commission. Its decisions are binding on all Party organisations.

Besides regular congresses the Party may convene extraordinary congresses. The congress is considered properly

constituted if not less than one-half of the total Party membership is represented at it.

An extraordinary congress may be convened not only at the initiative of the Central Committee but also at the demand of local bodies speaking for no less than one-third of the total membership represented at the preceding congress. Should the extraordinary congress fail to be convened within a period of two months, the organisations demanding it have the right to form an organising committee enjoying the powers of the Central Committee in respect to convening the congress.

WHAT POWERS DOES THE CPSU CENTRAL COMMITTEE HAVE?

The Central Committee is the top Party body between congresses. It carries out the policy charted by the Congress. It consists of leading officials of various industries, agriculture, science, culture, the diplomatic and military circles and also advanced workers in production.

The number of members to be elected to the Central Committee is determined by the Party Congress. Thus, the 23rd Congress elected 195 full members and 165 alternate members to the Central Committee.

The Central Committee selects and appoints leading functionaries, sets up various Party bodies and distributes Party funds.

Through the Party groups of central government and public organisations the Central Committee directs their work and effects day-to-day supervision of the activity of Party local bodies. The Central Committee represents the CPSU in relations with foreign Parties.

The Politbureau and the Secretariat as well as the General Secretary of the Party are elected by the Central Committee.

The Central Committee forms the Party Control Committee, which controls the observation of Party discipline by Communists and candidate members. It also brings to account Communists who violate the Party Programme and Rules, Party and state discipline and communist morality. It examines appeals against decisions of the Republican Party Central Committees and regional and district commit-

tees on expulsion from the Party and on Party disciplinary measures.

In case of necessity the CPSU Central Committee has the right to convene an All-Union Party Conference in the period between the congresses in order to settle pressing problems of Party policy.

WHAT IS A PLENARY MEETING OF THE CENTRAL COMMITTEE?

Between congresses cardinal questions of principle in Party policy regarding communist construction are discussed by the Central Committee at sessions that are called Plenary Meetings. According to the Rules a Plenary Meeting is convened at least once every six months.

The decisions and resolutions of Central Committee plenary meetings epitomise the vast wealth of the collective experience of both Communists and non-Party people. Very often the questions at issue are discussed by broad public before being considered at a Plenary Meeting. This is a firm tradition introduced by Lenin who taught Communists to base their political theories and practical work on the objective laws of social development, not to rely on the will and intuition of personalities, but to lean upon science, the collective experience and reason of the popular masses; not to be too self-satisfied in appraising what has been done; boldly to expose and correct mistakes and overcome shortcomings; to avoid subjectivism and rashness in settling questions of politics and economic management. Lenin repeated more than once that a concrete analysis of a concrete situation was the soul of Marxism. In most cases Plenary Meetings are held with the participation of leading officials from the various Republics, regions and districts, scientists and advanced workers in production, including non-Party people.

The entire course of preparing for and convening the Plenary Meetings of the CPSU Central Committee makes them important events in the country's life.

DO COMMUNISTS HAVE ANY SPECIAL RIGHTS OR PRIVILEGES?

Communists have no special rights over non-Party people. Any post in any Soviet, state, economic or cultural organisation or institution can be occupied and is occupied by either a Communist or a non-Party person, depending solely on his personal and business attributes. And both Communists and non-Party persons are equally distinguished for merits in labour, scientific discoveries or outstanding creations in the field of literature and the arts.

Communists have no privileges as regards pay or social benefits.

WHAT ARE THE DUTIES OF A PARTY MEMBER?

It is the duty of a Party member to take an active part in the political life of the country, in the administration of state affairs, and in economic and cultural development, to set an example in the fulfilment of his public duty, to assist in developing and strengthening communist social relations, and to be a model of lofty ethical and moral purity.

A Communist must not only set an example but also know how to convince non-Party people that the Party policy is the right one. To achieve that he himself must carry out Party policy conscientiously, and take an active part in working out this policy.

In the eyes of the people the Communist represents the Party. The very word is identified with notions of self-sacrifice, honesty, modesty and incorruptibility. The supreme reward for the Communist is to have the people's trust, to see that the life of Soviet people is improving from day to day due to the endeavours and concern of the Leninist Party, to which he belongs.

WHAT IS THE MORAL CODE OF THE BUILDER OF COMMUNISM?

This code incorporates the following ethical principles:

— loyalty to the communist cause, love of the socialist motherland and the other socialist countries;

- conscientious labour for the benefit of society; he who does not work, neither shall he eat;
- concern on everyone's part for the protection and increase of public wealth;
- a lofty sense of public duty, intolerance of violations of public interests;
- collectivism and comradely mutual assistance: one for all, and all for one;
- humane relations and mutual respect among people: man to man is a friend, comrade and brother;
- honesty and truthfulness, moral purity, unpretentiousness and modesty in social and private life;
- mutual respect in the family, and concern for the upbringing of children;
- intolerance of injustice, parasitism, dishonesty, careerism and money-grubbing;
- friendship and fraternity among all peoples of the USSR, intolerance of national and racial hostility;
- intolerance towards the enemies of communism, the enemies of peace and those who oppose the freedom of nations;
- fraternal solidarity with the working people of all countries, and with all peoples.

One will easily see that these principles fall into two categories, as it were. The first includes human features that are characteristic of members of the new society. These are, for example, concern on everyone's part to protect and increase social wealth, voluntary work for the benefit of society, friendship and fraternity among all Soviet peoples. The second category includes nothing new that was not known before the advent of socialism—honesty, truthfulness, unpretentiousness, modesty, mutual respect in the family, concern for the upbringing of children. And that is only natural since communist morality embodies the sum total of all of man's finest and noblest achievements throughout history.

WHAT ARE THE CPSU RELATIONS WITH OTHER COMMUNIST PARTIES?

The Communist Party of the Soviet Union is an integral unit of the international communist and working-class movement. It adheres and will always adhere to the position

of consolidating unity and fraternal bonds with Communists the world over.

The ideology of Marxism-Leninism is the sole foundation upon which the Communist Parties build their relations thereby ensuring general progress.

All Communist Parties are independent and equal. No Party issues directives to another. The decisions adopted by any particular Party regardless of its size or how much it contributed are obligatory only for that Party.

The aims and interests of the international communist movement call for such an application of the basic principles of communism that would take the fullest possible account of the national and state distinctions of various countries. A stereotyped application of the experience of one Party on other Parties' activities can only harm the common cause.

The international character of the Marxist-Leninist teaching has been manifest in the experience of the peoples of Europe, Asia, America and Africa, in the experience of countries with very uneven levels of economic and social development. Communists consider Marxism-Leninism as an integrated teaching. It cannot be torn apart. It is impossible to use some of its aspects and ignore the others, to separate, say, purposes from methods, ideals from ways of realising them, the revolutionary teaching from the struggle for the working people's daily needs, considerations of national peculiarities from common international duties. Such an «approach» to the major principles of Marxism-Leninism would not be justified by any national distinctions and would distort and revise the very essence of the teaching. It would amount to departure from Marxism-Leninism, a fact for which the working class would have to pay dearly sooner or later. Marxism-Leninism is international and universal in its basis and major principles. Not a single Party or country has the right to force on others its narrow nationalist understanding of this teaching. This would not only contradict the norms of relationships among the Communist Parties, but would be denounced in principle by Marxism-Leninism, it being a teaching that has revealed the universal laws of social development, laws that should be applied with consideration of the concrete conditions of every country.

Leninism has always belonged and belongs today to the international working class and the entire progressive hu-

manity. Consistently following Lenin's cause the Soviet Communist Party has never considered itself the only heir to his great teaching. The Soviet people rejoice that more and more peoples begin to build their life according to Lenin's teaching. This fact greatly expands the scale of application of the ideas and principles of Leninism, enriches its theory and practice.

The CPSU maintains there can be no progress, including progress in the communist movement, without a conflict of opinion. At one and the same time, however, there are no antagonisms, nor can there be, among the different Communist Parties since they all have the common aim of building a communist society. Any differences can be resolved in the course of discussion.

It is the constant concern of the Communist Parties to settle all differences that may arise in a spirit of good will, from the standpoint of Marxist-Leninist principle. One way of doing so is to have representatives of different Parties meet to discuss controversial issues at conferences.

The role of such international communist forums has grown in importance particularly in the recent period when the situation in the communist movement has become complicated.

Sometimes differences are of a very serious nature. That happens when the leadership of one or another Communist Party abandons a basic principle of Marxism and is guilty of revisionism, or when it fails to see the cardinal changes that have occurred in the world and clings to obsolete tenets. By insisting on their fallacious views, these leaders place themselves and their Parties in opposition to the entire world communist movement.

The lessons of history show that in the final analysis it is the forces adhering to creative Marxism, to dialectical and historical materialism, that win out in the Communist Parties. Life itself compels revisionist and dogmatist delusions to be jettisoned. This is particularly true of the Communist Parties of the socialist countries as theoretical blunders on their part would tend to have a most catastrophic effect on the state and economic development, retarding socialist advancement.

Unity of Communists and working people of all countries has never been as essential as it is today. This is to be explained above all by the fact that the communist move-

ment has now become a truly world movement, involving almost all the countries. There are Communist Parties in 88 countries with a membership of over 50 million people. They have to work under different conditions, which requires that they show constant concern for coordinating their policies, strengthening unity, exchanging experience in the struggle and in the construction of a new society. Those who refrain from the struggle for unity, who do not seek ways to attain it, assume a grave responsibility before the world working-class movement, and the working people of all countries fighting for peace and national and social liberation.

Unity can be strengthened only on the basis of firm principles. A correct approach to overcoming the difficulties means that it is necessary to rely on what unites the Marxist-Leninist Parties and let time help certain Parties to overcome their faulty views. With this in view it is necessary to establish cooperation in the fields where international unity of action of Communists is of especially urgent character for the entire revolutionary movement.

True to Lenin's behests the Soviet Communist Party firmly rejects the method of commanding and forcing one's views on others, and interfering in other Parties' affairs. The CPSU strives for relations with other Parties in which consideration would be displayed and the peculiarities of their positions would be taken into account. It advocates consistent observation of the principles of genuine equality and independence of all Parties, small and big.

WHAT IS THE WORLD OUTLOOK OF THE COMMUNIST PARTY?

The CPSU has a Marxist-Leninist world outlook, so called because of the decisive contributions of Marx and Lenin.

The cardinal components of this communist world outlook consist of the following: Marxist-Leninist philosophy, based on dialectical and historical materialism, political economy as evolved by Marx, and the theory of scientific communism.

WHAT ARE THE ESSENTIAL FEATURES OF COMMUNIST PHILOSOPHY?

Marxist-Leninist philosophy proceeds from the assumption that the world is materialistic by nature. Be it the atom, the living cell, the organism or homo sapiens himself, all are forms of everlasting matter. They are in a state of constant development which proceeds according to objective laws, independent of someone's volition or a supernatural force. That is why Marxist materialism is called dialectical materialism, dialectics meaning the «teaching of development».

Marxism-Leninism also maintains that not only nature but human society as well develops according to objective laws—that is why Marxist materialism is also called historical materialism.

Though the laws of nature and society do not depend on man's volition he can get to know them and employ them to serve his own interests. There is nothing in the world that cannot be taken cognition of. There are only things as yet unknown which we learn to understand as the natural sciences develop and history unfolds.

By disclosing this law of development Marx elevated the theory of the history of mankind to a genuine science capable of explaining both the character of every social system and the laws governing the transition from one social system to another.

This means that the philosophy of Marxism-Leninism enables one to take one's bearings in the intricacies of social contradictions and foresee the main trend of historical progress.

Why did feudalism take over from the slave-owning society and capitalism in turn supplant feudalism? Pre-Marxist philosophers had thousand-and-one explanations to offer, their ultimate conclusion being that history is a maze of chaotic chance events which cannot be disentangled.

Marxism, on the other hand, claims that there is a definite regularity behind what seems the whims of chance. This is the class struggle, meaning the struggle between large groups of people with different interests and aims that are determined, above all, by their relationship to the means of production.

The supreme form of the class struggle is a social revolution climaxed by the advent of the dictatorship of the proletariat.

The dictatorship of the proletariat implies that only a definite class, namely industrial workers, by virtue of their higher level of organisation and several other factors, are capable of directing all the working people in the struggle to make socialism victorious. The dictatorship of the proletariat is effected through the medium of the proletarian state and its supreme principle is the alliance of the working class and the peasants, with the working class as the driving force.

A fundamental distinction between the dictatorship of the proletariat and the dictatorships of other classes, that history has known, is that the workers use it not to perpetuate their domination but to gradually abolish all classes and class distinctions, to create a communist society, which is governed by the people themselves.

There have been quite a few political doctrines in history that tried to explain the meaning of historical events and to foresee the future. But it is Marxism-Leninism alone which has been able to discover the laws of the development of human society, which has withstood the test of time. This teaching meets the demands of the epoch and it wins recognition in all parts of the world, among broad sections of the population.

WHAT DO COMMUNISTS MEAN BY THE INEVITABLE WORLD-WIDE VICTORY OF COMMUNISM?

Capitalism supplanted feudalism because it was more progressive and more efficient than the feudal system. Socialism and communism constitute the most progressive and just social system which not only rules out exploitation of man by man, but also creates the best conditions for development of productive forces, for a higher level of per capita production of material benefits than under capitalism to satisfy the material and cultural requirements of each member of society.

The victory of socialism in the USSR and its successful construction in the other socialist countries demonstrate in practice the Marxist-Leninist thesis that history is advancing from capitalism to socialism and communism.

The new social system will inevitably oust the old one not because of illusory «intrigues of international communism» or because of the export of revolution, but because such is the logic of history, the logic of the inexorable laws of social progress.

The Trade Unions

WHAT IS THE ROLE OF TRADE UNIONS IN SOCIALIST SOCIETY?

In the USSR trade unions are not only concerned with improving working conditions and the well-being of the working people but also take an active part in solving the economic and political tasks of society; they draw wage and salary earners into production management, and seek to improve their education and raise their cultural level. As Lenin once put it, the trade unions are a school of administration, a school of management, and a school of communism.

In Russia trade unions emerged in the fire of the first Russian revolution of 1905-07. They were revolutionary trade unions, created by the Communist Party. In 1917 the trade unions actively participated in the consolidation of Soviet power. Then they became organisations of the working class in power. They assumed a completely new task in exercising workers' control over production, supported the state power.

The October Revolution abolished the state apparatus of the bourgeoisie and landowners, and a new state apparatus

had to be created. And so the metal workers' trade union sent their workers to the People's Commissariat of Labour, and the factories of the Vyborg District of Leningrad sent their workers to the People's Commissariat of Education. The revolution abolished the bourgeoisie's and landowners' apparatus of justice. The trade unions of the metal workers, textile workers, and tanners sent capable workers to the judicial bodies. The trade unions took part in setting up the Supreme Council of National Economy and sent their representatives to it (more than half the places in that body were filled by trade unionists).

Socialism has been built and we are faced now with the task of building a communist society. Today the role of the trade unions in drawing the largest possible number of working people into the management of the national economy and cultural affairs is greater than ever before. They assume many functions which formerly belonged to the state.

Trade unions are in charge of state social insurance and state control over the observance of labour legislation and safety requirements; they also settle labour disputes.

The takeover by Soviet trade unions of certain functions of the state involving the protection of the material interests of working people has nothing to do with «state regimentation» of trade unions, since the state powers assumed by trade unions are applied to economic bodies and executives, not the personnel—factory and office workers. The assumption of certain state functions by trade unions helps them better to represent and protect the interests of the working people.

HOW ARE THE TRADE UNIONS ORGANISED?

The Soviet trade unions have a membership of 80 million people. They unite wage and salary earners of all trades on a strictly voluntary basis irrespective of race, nationality, sex, religious convictions and citizenship.

The industrial principle of organisation, whereby all persons employed in the same factory or office, regardless of their occupation, belong to the same union, has proved to be the most effective. The industrial principle of organisation was first proclaimed by the trade unions in March 1917,

seven months before the October Socialist Revolution, at the conference of the Petrograd trade unions.

The basic unit of the trade union is the primary trade union organisation, composed of members employed at an enterprise or institution. In 1966 there were 548,000 primary trade union organisations. Higher up are district, town, regional, territorial and republican trade union committees organised on the sectoral principle. All trade union bodies, from the lowest to the highest, are elected by secret ballot. The supreme body of the trade unions is the USSR Congress of Trade Unions which is convened at least once every four years. The Congress adopts the Rules of the Trade Unions of the USSR, specifies the immediate tasks of the trade unions, hears reports by the state central planning and economic bodies, outlines measures for trade union participation in the fulfilling and overfulfilling national economic plans, in improving the well-being and raising the cultural and political level of wage and salary earners. The 14th Congress of the Trade Unions of the USSR will take place in December 1967.

In between congresses the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions (AUCCTU) directs trade union activities.

The highest directing body of each sectoral trade union (there are 24 of them in the country) is its congress, which is convened once every two years. In between congresses the Central Committee of the branch union directs its work.

A sectoral trade union does not confine itself to its own activities. Trade union councils (inter-union bodies) are elected on the territorial principle—in the regions, territories and Union Republics—to coordinate the work of the sectoral trade unions.

WHAT RIGHTS DO TRADE UNIONS ENJOY?

The Constitution gives the trade unions every opportunity to conduct their activity freely at all enterprises and institutions. They have premises for their meetings, Palaces of Culture and stadiums, gymnasiums and other facilities for sports and culture activities. The trade unions also have their own publications.

No legislative act on labour and workers' welfare can be passed without the consent of the trade union bodies. For

instance, the trade unions took part in drawing up the fundamentals of labour legislation as well as legislation on marriage and the family. Soviet trade unions enjoy the right to introduce bills and frequently are the initiators of state laws. In 1957, at the suggestion of the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions (AUCCTU), the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR passed a decree on introducing new regulations regarding labour disputes, and in 1958 regulations on the rights of trade union committees at enterprises and in institutions were confirmed.

The trade unions always take part in countrywide discussions preceeding the adoption of all major undertakings initiated by the Government. In 1956 they took part in the elaboration and country-wide discussion of the draft law on state pensions, in 1961—in the discussion of the CPSU Programme. In 1964-65 trade unions participated in the elaboration of the economic reform, measures to improve industrial management and the new system of economic planning and stimulation. They actively participate in election campaigns for deputies to the bodies of state power.

Important decisions on questions of labour and wages are made by the Soviet Communist Party Central Committee and the Soviet Government together with the AUCCTU. Such issues as introduction of six-hour working day, readjustment of wages in production branches of the economy, transition to a five-day working week were joint decisions of the CPSU Central Committee, the USSR Council of Ministers and the AUCCTU.

The trade unions direct the operation of the state social insurance scheme, they exercise control over the observance of labour legislation. Together with state bodies they control the work of trade and catering establishments and municipal services. They exercise control over housing construction and distribution of flats, and deal with matters pertaining to cultural and municipal services. Nearly 8 million trade union activists take part in various forms of public control. The rest homes and sanatoria come under the jurisdiction of the trade unions.

The trade unions are not state organisations. They and their Rules are not registered with state bodies nor are the trade unions in any way accountable to them.

The right of the working people to organise trade unions is guaranteed by Article 126 of the Constitution of the USSR.

WHAT ARE THE SOURCES OF TRADE UNION FUNDS?

The chief source of trade union funds is the admission and monthly dues. The monthly membership dues depend on the earnings, the maximum being one per cent.

Another source of trade union revenues is the proceeds from their clubs, stadiums, auxiliary establishments and publications.

Financially trade unions are not accountable to or controlled by any government body. The trade union members themselves exercise control over the expenditure of union funds through elected auditing commissions.

WHAT ARE TRADE UNION FUNDS SPENT ON?

The biggest item of expenditure is the appropriations for cultural services, sports activities, grants to union members for holiday trips, or in case of sickness.

These expenditures are decided upon at a meeting of the committee of the primary organisation (in accordance with the estimate approved by a general meeting of union members). An average of three-quarters of the membership dues collected by a trade union organisation is spent on its own needs.

The remainder goes to the general trade union budget which is used at the discretion of the higher trade union bodies.

ARE THERE FULL-TIME UNION ORGANISERS?

Today 96 per cent of the primary trade union organisations do not have permanent full-time organisers. All the work is directed by trade union members elected at a general meeting (or conference) by secret ballot for a period of one year. Most of the city and district trade union committees of the country also get along without paid staff. There are also regional trade union committees which work with people who still keep their regular jobs.

WHAT MATERIAL PRIVILEGES DO TRADE UNION MEMBERS RECEIVE?

When the interests of a worker or workers have to be defended, the trade unions do so, regardless of whether the worker in question is a union member or not. However, in matters of social insurance and cultural and other services each trade union is concerned first of all with its own members, for its budget is made up mainly of their membership dues.

A trade union member enjoys the following privileges: he receives state social insurance benefits greater than those paid to non-members;

he is shown preference when accommodations for rest homes and sanatoriums are distributed, and also when places for children at kindergartens, nurseries and Young Pioneer camps are allocated;

he receives free legal advice and assistance from his trade union and, when necessary, obtains grants from trade union funds;

he uses the trade union's cultural and sports facilities, and has the right to join the mutual aid fund of his trade union organisation.

The near 100 per cent union membership, however, is due not to the material privileges which such membership provides, but to the keen desire of the people to participate, together with the entire collective, in solving important production problems, in discussing production plans, in socialist emulation, and in the communist work movement. These are the chief reasons prompting the working people to join trade unions.

MUST EVERY WORKER BE A TRADE UNION MEMBER?

No. When a person goes to work at any enterprise, it is not demanded that he be a member of the given trade union.

CAN A PERSON BE EXPELLED FROM A UNION?

The extreme measure of public influence that may be applied to people who have not paid membership dues for more than three months and who break the Rules of the trade uni-

ons is expulsion from the union. The decision of the meeting of the trade union group on this question goes into effect after it is approved by the committee of primary trade union organisation.

This happens very rarely, however. Usually other corrective measures are found, such as a warning, reprimand, or censure.

WHAT IS THE TRADE UNION PRESS?

The main publication of the trade unions is the newspaper *Trud* (Labour), which has a daily circulation of over 2,400,000 copies.

Problems concerning the trade union movement at home and abroad, as well as national and international news are featured in the paper. Workers collaborate with *Trud* not only by writing letters to it, but also by acting as correspondents. On assignments from the editorial board they check up on the work of the trade union organisations and on working conditions at enterprises, see how the management helps the workers in socialist emulation and how their proposals are dealt with. Important problems are frequently raised in the trade union press. As a result a number of measures are taken which improve working conditions at many enterprises.

The newspaper has set itself the task of drawing as many workers as possible into its group of activists. For this purpose *Trud* public reception rooms have been opened in many cities, and the working people go there to seek advice or to make suggestions of their own.

The trade unions have their own monthly magazine *Soviet Trade Unions* which has a circulation of over 360,000. It features various problems of trade union life, discusses questions of the international trade union movement, publishes reviews and articles on literature, art, physical culture and sports. The magazine has a section devoted to the exchange of experience in trade union work, publishes readers' letters, and gives legal advice on labour legislation and rights of the trade unions.

The trade unions also issue the illustrated magazines *Club*, *Amateur Art*, *The Soviet Miner* and *Labour Protection and Social Insurance*. The trade unions have their own publishing house, *Profizdat*.

The trade unions also put out local newspapers at factories, railways and state farms.

ARE THERE COLLECTIVE AGREEMENTS?

Yes, there have been such agreements since 1918. They are concluded between the collective at an enterprise and the management for a period of one year. Before a new collective agreement is signed, the trade union committee as well as rank-and-file workers check on the fulfilment of the preceding agreement. Proposals and suggestions are also canvassed among production and office workers and technicians to be included in the new draft agreement. The terms of agreement are discussed at general meetings of the working people, and, after all points of the agreement have been agreed upon, it is signed by the enterprise manager and the union committee chairman. The text of the agreement is handed to the workers.

The basic content of a collective agreement consists in concrete measures to improve production and organisation of work, promote technical progress and provide better incentives to raise the efficiency of each worker and the entire enterprise, to improve the working and living conditions of the employees and furnish adequate education and recreation facilities.

A collective agreement ordinarily consists of four parts. Its first section contains specific obligations of the management and the trade union in organising production, such as the fulfilment of the state plan, introduction of scientific and technical innovations, mechanisation of arduous work, better use of the fixed and circulating assets, economy of raw materials, raising the quality of goods, increasing profit and profitability, promoting socialist emulation. It also includes measures to be taken by the management to improve organisation of work and rate setting, to teach new jobs to personnel, to raise the qualifications of workers and technicians, to furnish suitable conditions to workers who study without leaving their jobs, to promote innovations and inventions.

The second section of the agreement is devoted to pay and bonuses, and the output quotas. The hourly pay rates that have been agreed upon and the scale of rates for piece-

workers and time-workers are enumerated there, and the order of pay for other trades are defined. It is stressed that as the workers improve their skills, the management is obligated to give them more skilled jobs with a higher rate of pay. The output quotas can be changed only with the agreement of the trade union committee, which, in turn, undertakes to control the correctness of the calculation of wages and the application of labour legislation. The system of awarding bonuses is also laid down here, complete with specific rates and conditions for various trades.

The third part of the agreement deals with improving the working conditions. It lists concrete steps to be taken to raise the standards of labour protection, safety engineering and hygiene, to reduce sick rate and prevent accidents, to provide more rest rooms and special rooms for women workers, etc. The trade union undertakes concrete obligations in providing sanatorium and holiday home accommodation for the workers and summer camp facilities for their children.

Section four enumerates the management's obligations to improve the living conditions of the workers, such as construction of houses, kindergartens and creches, clinics and medical centres, restaurants, cafeterias, clubs as well as the measures to be taken by the trade union to raise the level of cultural and sports activities.

Both the management and the trade union periodically report to the workers on the fulfilment of the collective agreement.

DO LABOUR DISPUTES OCCUR?

They do, the number varying from plant to plant. But the procedure for their settlement is the same everywhere; it has been elaborated by the trade unions and confirmed by the law.

Labour disputes are considered by the Labour Dispute Commissions, consisting of an equal number of representatives of the management and the trade union. If no agreement between the two sides is reached in the Commission or if the interested party does not accept the Commission's decision, the question is turned over within a 10-day period for the union committee's consideration.

The decision of the trade union committee is binding on

the management. Court determination can be requested if there has been a violation of the labour legislation.

If a factory or office worker disagrees with the decision of the trade union committee he can apply to the state for defence of his labour interests: to the Procurator's Office or the people's court of law which are obliged to consider his case within a 10-day period.

Should the case concern the unlawful discharge of a worker and if the worker, as a result, has been compelled to be idle for a certain period, the law provides compensation to him for his involuntary idleness, the management bearing costs.

WHY ARE THERE NO STRIKES IN THE USSR?

There is no law in the Soviet Union forbidding strikes.

Yet, for several decades the workers in the USSR have not resorted to strike action.

In spite of repressions and executions, in spite of the policemen's clubs and the Cossacks' whips the working class of old Russia resorted to strikes when it considered them necessary. In 1905, for instance, more than two million workers took part in the October strike.

As a result of the October Revolution of 1917 the working class and poor peasants took power into their own hands. The people became the masters of the land. The working people realised that under such conditions the restoration of the economy and the creation of a powerful industry and agriculture depended only on them. Then the workers came to the conclusion that it would be stupid to strike against themselves.

The working people of the USSR have the opportunity to improve their working conditions and to better their living standards by other means: through the trade unions, through the Soviets, and through their representatives in the Soviet Government.

CAN THE MANAGER DISCHARGE A WORKER?

He can, but only with the consent of the trade union committee of the enterprise. Discharge is considered an extreme measure of punishment. Only people who regularly violate

production discipline and ignore the opinion of the collective are discharged.

The introduction of mechanisation and automation does not threaten the workers with unemployment. The worker is transferred to another job without any cut in pay, or (if he agrees) he is sent to study at refresher courses. He is paid his average wages during study time. After he improves his skill or learns a new trade his wages, as a rule, increase.

And finally, should any executive illegally fire a worker on personal grounds and fail to comply with the court decision regarding his reinstatement, he may be tried for committing a criminal offence.

CAN THE WORKERS DISCHARGE THE MANAGER?

They may, but such cases are very rare.

Relations between the workers and the manager at a Soviet enterprise are based on socialist principles: mutual respect, mutual interest in improving the work of the plant or factory.

The manager's job is to ensure the fulfilment of the production plan, and so is the worker's. The manager must show concern for the working conditions, he must seek counsel and respect the opinion of the workers who widely participate in production management.

If the head of a plant does not justify the trust shown in him, if he ignores the opinions of the workers, if he becomes bureaucratic and big-headed, the collective criticises him at meetings and in the press. Such criticism frequently helps the manager to correct his mistakes. But if it does not help, the question of removing the manager is raised. Higher economic bodies see that the workers have their say.

WHAT RIGHTS HAS THE TRADE UNION FACTORY COMMITTEE?

It is the plenipotentiary and authorised representative of the union organisation, and its rights are set down in special

regulations which were elaborated by the trade unions with the broad participation of the working people and later confirmed by a decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

These rights are:

no worker may be discharged without the factory union committee's consent;

the trade union committee supervises the observance of labour legislation, safety procedure and industrial sanitation; the union committee's representative participates in the act of turning a new shop over to the factory;

the trade union committee has the right of final decision during the consideration of labour disputes: its decision can be appealed by the management only through court and only in the event of violation of the labour legislation;

it can raise the question of removing those executives who do not observe the collective agreement, who are bureaucratic and who violate labour legislation; when the new executives are appointed, the opinion of the factory union committee is taken into consideration;

it effects state social insurance through the most active union members, assigns social insurance grants, distributes rest home and sanatorium accommodations;

it always takes part in fixing pay rates, the systems of payment, and output quotas; it participates in drawing up the lists of piece-workers and time-workers;

it exercises control over overtime work in extreme cases, and also the employment of teenagers;

it takes part in controlling housing construction and distribution of flats, and exercises public control over state and cooperative trade.

In questions concerning production the trade union committee also has many rights:

it hears the report of the management on the fulfilment of the plan and the collective agreement;

it participates in the drawing up of draft production plans and the plans for capital construction;

it submits to the economic and governmental agencies proposals for improving the work of the enterprise, working conditions, cultural and other services, and confirms the estimates for the enterprise fund;

it guides the work of the production conferences.

HOW DO WORKERS PARTICIPATE IN PRODUCTION MANAGEMENT?

Workers participate in production management through the trade unions, workers' meetings and the standing production conferences. The latter are one of the most important forms of workers' participation in production management. The participants of these conferences are elected at open meetings for a period of one year and work under the guidance of the trade union committee. There are 5 million factory and office workers elected to the standing production conferences. These conferences decide important production problems. They have the right to hear reports of, and to make recommendations to, the management regarding questions of production, rate fixing, working conditions, etc.

After the October Revolution newspapers in the West declared that the Russian workers would be unable to manage production and run the state. Despite these gloomy forecasts the workers learned to do this in a very brief period.

We are now sometimes asked: Why should workers interfere in production management if that is the job of the state? We answer: no one is surprised when a factory owner is concerned with increasing output. Why, then, should the Soviet workers, who are the owners of industry, stand aside from this?

There are many forms of workers' participation in production management. In the course of building communist society they are engendered by life itself. And the trade unions always widely support undertakings that are directed towards drawing the working people into production management.

HOW DO TRADE UNIONS EXERCISE CONTROL OVER WORKING CONDITIONS?

This is done through technical inspection by the trade union and mass public supervision over labour protection standards. Control begins from the moment the designs for future shops appear in blueprints. The trade union representatives make a detailed study of them, and if they find any defects the projects are revised. This happened, for instance, with the design of an electric power station. It was rejected at a meeting of the Presidium of the Central Commit-

tee of the Trade Union of Power Stations and the Electrical Industry Workers because it did not provide for an improvement in working conditions.

The trade unions continue to exercise control during the construction work. Not a single shop or section may be commissioned without the consent of the trade unions.

In the shops the trade unions exercise control over working conditions in each section through their public inspectors, who are elected by the members of the trade union group. Commissions on labour protection are organised under shop and factory trade union committees. Such public control, as many years of experience show, is most effective and covers all sections of the enterprise.

At many plants the trade union organisations have of late introduced the so-called three-stage control. First of all the public inspector on labour protection and the foreman examine their section before the shift begins work. There they give oral instructions on removing all defects. Then the senior public inspector of the shop committee and the superintendant of the shop also make their daily rounds of the shop. The defects and time limit for rectifying them are recorded. Besides that, the chairman of the commission on labour protection of the factory union committee as well as the doctor and safety arrangements engineer and the chief engineer, also check up on working conditions.

Every industrial accident is examined in detail and discussed at workers' meetings. Those guilty are punished. Concrete obligations of the management to improve working conditions are included in the collective agreement.

The trade unions not only exercise control over working conditions, they also constantly carry out research in this field for which purpose they have six special research institutes.

WHAT RIGHTS DO THE LABOUR PROTECTION AND ACCIDENT PREVENTION INSPECTORS HAVE?

State supervision over labour protection is carried out by technical inspectors of the trade unions.

Many managers of enterprises are inclined to think that these inspectors are vested literally with «dictatorial» rights where working conditions are concerned at their plants. The

trade unions are of the opinion that only such rigid control and such broad powers will help to create the best working conditions and do away with industrial accidents. The inspectors are on the staff of the trade union councils and do not depend on the management of the enterprises. Each inspector is entrusted with exercising control over working conditions at specific plants of a given district. They are people with an engineering education and with a good knowledge of production.

The rights of the technical inspectors are defined by law. Here are some of them:

inspectors may visit the enterprises at any time of the day or night;

if they notice that working conditions or safety arrangements are being violated in the shop or enterprise, they can order the shop or even the entire plant to be closed down;

the directions of a technical inspector to eliminate violations of labour protection regulations are obligatory for the management;

a new shop may begin operating only with the permission of a technical inspector;

if an enterprise manager has violated labour legislation (for instance, introduced overtime work without the sanction of the trade union) or the safety arrangements and labour protection rules, the technical inspector has the right to fine him to 50 roubles, and if that does not help he can raise the question before the trade union council of removing such a manager from his post. In addition to technical inspection by the trade unions labour protection control is also effected by state inspections specifically concerned with hygiene, safety in the mining industry, operation of boilers, etc.

WHAT ROLE DO THE TRADE UNIONS PLAY IN SOCIAL INSURANCE AND MAINTENANCE?

The workers' insurance programme was adopted by the Communists in 1912, more than 50 years ago. According to the programme private owners and the state must bear all insurance expenses. The workers themselves should control the social insurance work.

This programme was implemented after the Great October Revolution. The Soviet state instituted, in the form of law,

full social maintenance of the working people in case of disability, and was the first state to introduce unemployment relief.

Nowadays there is no private ownership in the USSR, so it is the state that bears the expenses involved in social insurance and social maintenance. The working people do not pay a single kopeck into the social insurance funds.

Social insurance includes a whole complex of forms of material maintenance: pensions for old age, temporary or permanent disability, and in the case of the loss of the breadwinner as well as pregnancy and childbirth allowances. It also includes treatment and accommodations at rest homes and sanatoriums, as well as cultural and everyday services.

The trade unions dispose of the social insurance funds, which in 1967 amounted to 12,400 million roubles, 1,200 million more than in 1966.

WHAT MEDICAL AND HEALTH-BUILDING INSTITUTIONS ARE AT THE DISPOSAL OF THE TRADE UNIONS?

Every year 8.5 million working people spend their leave at sanatoriums and holiday homes which the state transferred without compensation to the trade unions. Out of these 8.5 million, six million are accommodated either free or at a considerable discount.

The funds for the maintenance of these health resorts come from state social insurance funds. 564,300,000 roubles were spent on sanatorium and holiday home accommodation in 1966.

With this money 5,821,000 people (473,000 more than in 1965) obtained accommodation at sanatoriums, holiday homes, tourist camps and other recreation institutions free of charge or at part payment. More than 1,400 factories run night sanatoriums where employees come after work to have medical treatment, a nourishing meal and a good rest. Over 750,000 people attended night sanatoriums, also called «prophylactoriums», in 1966. More than 45 million roubles were spent on their upkeep out of the state social insurance fund.

All large enterprises have medical centres to look after the health of the workers with offices for doctors and specialists. The medical centres come under the jurisdiction of the

Ministry of Public Health, but the trade union committee controls the work and helps whenever necessary. For instance, the trade union committee may raise the question before the management of allocating money from the funds of the enterprise for the purchase of specific medical equipment.

WHAT CULTURAL INSTITUTIONS DO THE TRADE UNIONS HAVE?

The unions have over 30,000 permanent and mobile libraries, and some 21,000 clubs and houses of culture.

Trade unions conduct extensive cultural and educational work. They seek to satisfy the desire of the working people for knowledge, culture and art. Trade unions have set up public universities of culture where subjects are taught by volunteers on a social basis, amateur drama groups and ensembles are organised as well as meetings with prominent scientists and artists, mass visits to theatres and museums, excursions to places of historic importance. Here also trade unions receive ample support from the state. Suffice it to say that houses of culture, clubs and sports facilities are built entirely on state funds.

Some 7 million people take part in the work of the circles and amateur art groups that are organised at the trade union clubs. They give more than a million concerts and performances annually.

Amateur art groups of the workers have become a source of talent for professional art.

Actors greatly help trade unions in organising these amateur art activities. They give advice, and frequently direct the work of the people's theatres, dance and song groups and serve as members of the jury during amateur art festivals.

WHAT SPORTS CENTRES AND FACILITIES DO THE TRADE UNIONS HAVE?

Almost all Soviet enterprises and institutions have their gymnasiums or sports grounds. Large plants and factories also have their own stadiums.

Trade union sports societies have a membership of over 20 million people. There are 22 such societies in the country.

The largest of them are: *Trud*, *Burevestnik* (whose members are students) and *Lokomotiv* (members are railway workers).

Any trade unionist may become a member of a sports society. For 30 kopecks a year (there are no entrance fees) he may use the sports facilities, take part in contests and go in for sports under the guidance of experienced coaches. The organisation of sports activities calls for large sums of money which are provided by the trade unions.

Trade unions run more than 500 tourist and mountaineering camps which accommodate 2 million people annually, the cost being paid as a rule, in full or partially by the trade unions. In 1966 some 5.3 million children spent their summer vacations in pioneers' camps organised by trade unions. The bulk of their maintenance cost is also paid by the trade unions.

In the USSR physical culture and sports are regarded as a means for improving health. Hence the most important aspect of these activities is their mass character. Breaks for physical culture exercises have been introduced at enterprises and in institutions at the suggestion of the trade unions. Almost 20 million people now take part in them.

The All-Union Council of Trade Union Sports Societies maintains contacts with workers', trade union and students' sports societies in more than 30 countries. In 1966 the Soviet trade union sports organisations played host to 78 foreign delegations and sent 90 Soviet delegations to foreign lands.

WHAT INTERNATIONAL TIES DO THE TRADE UNIONS HAVE?

The trade unions of the USSR are an integral part of the world trade union movement. They have never separated their activities from the struggle of the international working class. They support this struggle just as the workers of other countries support the Soviet working people.

The position of the Soviet trade unions is one that working people the world over can understand: the strength of the working class lies only in its unity. It is only through unity on a class basis that the trade unions of all countries can successfully act on problems of common interest to them, particularly in the struggle for peace, against imperialism

and colonialism, for peaceful coexistence of states with different social systems, for general and complete disarmament, and for the satisfaction of the social and economic demands of the working people.

Soviet trade unions are members of the World Trade Union Federation; they participate in the work of the International Labour Organisation and UNESCO. In the interests of unity the Soviet trade unions stand for promoting contacts with all trade unions of the world, regardless of their trends or nationality.

Three hundred workers' and trade union delegations visit the USSR annually, and as many Soviet delegations go abroad. Contacts are maintained with trade unions in almost 100 countries.

Public Organisations

WHAT COOPERATIVES EXIST IN THE USSR?

There are the following cooperatives:

collective farms which peasants have joined, pooling their basic means of production to conduct large-scale farming on land given them by the state for their perpetual use;

consumers' cooperatives which people join for the purpose of supplying the rural population with consumer goods and also for marketing surplus farm products;

fishermen's cooperatives which fishermen have joined for fishing and hunting sea animals together;

house-building cooperatives which help the population to improve housing conditions.

WHAT YOUTH ASSOCIATIONS ARE THERE IN THE USSR?

There are very many. Here are some of them:

The Komsomol (Young Communist League); the Committee of Youth Organisations of the USSR; the Lenin Young Pioneer Organisation; youth commissions of the unions of

Soviet writers, artists, composers and architects; youth sections of the Russian Theatrical Society; youth sections of the Union of the Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies and of the All-Russia Society for Wildlife Preservation.

WHAT IS THE YCL?

The All-Union Lenin Young Communist League (YCL) is a mass non-Party organisation whose members are young people from 15 to 28. A new member is issued a card and a YCL badge. In 1966 the YCL had a membership of 23 million.

Members regard themselves as assistants to Communists. Back in October 1918 the First All-Russia Congress of Working and Peasant Youth Leagues declared its full support for the Communist Party. In 1924 the YCL was named after Lenin.

The chief task of the League, as it sees it, is the communist education of young people in the spirit of collectivism, industriousness, patriotism and proletarian internationalism, and of the lofty moral principles of the new society.

WHAT ARE YCL'S PRINCIPLES OF ORGANISATION?

The guiding principle is *democratic centralism*, whereby all leading bodies are elected and periodically accountable to their organisations; the minority abides by the decisions arrived at by the majority; the decisions of higher bodies are binding on the lower bodies and all YCL members.

Centralism means that the YCL has its Rules common to all its members, that all activities of the League between congresses are directed by a Central Committee, which is elected at an All-Union Congress. Democracy means that all affairs are managed by the YCLers themselves—directly or through their representatives. Furthermore, all leading bodies are elected by secret ballot.

The core of the YCL is composed of primary branches which can be set up whenever there are three or more YCLers at factories, farms, offices, schools and colleges, in the Armed Forces.

WHAT IS THE COMMITTEE OF YOUTH ORGANISATIONS OF THE USSR?

It is a public organisation representing Soviet young people in the international youth movement. The CYO coordinates the activities of Soviet youth organisations; promotes friendship and cooperation with the young people of other countries and the extension of contacts with various international, regional, national and local foreign youth and students' organisations, movements and groups; ensures the participation of Soviet young people in various international activities conducted in the USSR and abroad.

The Committee has a Students' Council (the coordinating body of Soviet students' associations) and an International Youth Tourist Bureau called *Sputnik*, which organises tourist exchange between young people here and abroad. The CYO is a member of the World Federation of Democratic Youth, and the Students' Council is a member of the International Union of Students.

The Committee of Youth Organisations of the USSR maintains contact with over 1,000 youth organisations in more than 100 countries, with all international youth associations. In 1966 the Soviet Union played host to 115 youth delegations and over 46,000 young tourists, while more than 70 Soviet youth delegations and over 27,000 young tourists visited foreign lands.

WHO ARE THE YOUNG PIONEERS?

Virtually every child between 9 and 15 is a member of this organisation, open to all Soviet schoolchildren. Young Pioneers wear triangular red neckties symbolising the unity of the three generations: Communists, YCLers and Young Pioneers.

The Young Pioneers' Organisation was founded on May 19, 1922, when the Second All-Russia Conference of the YCL decided to set up Young Pioneer groups in all towns and villages of the country. The first group marched through Moscow that same year. It consisted of 52 boys and girls. Today the red necktie is worn by 24,000,000 children.

In 1924 the Young Pioneers' Organisation was named after Lenin, with whom the history of the establishment and con-

solidation of this children's communist organisation was connected.

A Young Pioneers' group is headed by a council and senior leader, and consists of teams divided into units. The highest body of the Organisation is the Central Council which works under the guidance of the Central Committee of the YCL.

The Young Pioneers' Organisation engages in a wide variety of activities. It organises children's recreation, promotes their initiative, develops their love for study, work, accustoms them to socially useful activities, helps them to grow up honest, courageous and happy.

The Young Pioneers' Organisation has at its disposal thousands of Young Pioneers' palaces and houses, clubs, country camps, stadiums, libraries and technical hobby centres, tourists' and young naturalists' centres. There are children's railways and steamship lines.

DO YOUTH ORGANISATIONS HAVE THEIR OWN PRESS?

Over two hundred youth newspapers and magazines are published in 25 languages in the USSR, with a total circulation of more than 47 million—almost a copy for each YCLer and Young Pioneer.

Komsomolskaya Pravda, the central youth paper, has a circulation of 7 million. Together with the Central Council of the Young Pioneers' Organisation the YCL Central Committee publishes the newspaper *Pionerskaya Pravda*, which has a circulation of more than 9 million.

Youth and Young Pioneer newspapers are published by all the Republican YCL organisations. The majority of territorial and regional YCL organisations also have newspapers of their own. There are 138 youth newspapers and 25 pioneers' newspapers in this country.

The youth press has grown rapidly in recent years. The Union of Soviet Writers has organised a youth magazine *Yunost* (Youth). In 1956 alone several new magazines were founded, among them *Yuny Tekhnik* (Young Technician), *Yuny Naturalist* (Young Naturalist), *Kostyor* (Bonfire), *Vesyoliye Kartinki* (Lively Pictures). Very popular among Soviet young people are the YCL magazines *Molodoi Kommunist* (Young Communist), *Smena* (Young Generation),

Tekhnika Molodyozhi (Technics for the Youth), *Vokrug Sveta* (Around the World).

The biggest publishing houses are *Molodaya Gvardiya* (Young Guard) which has existed since 1922 and has an annual circulation of 32 million books and *Detskaya Literatura* (Children's Literature) founded in 1933 with an annual circulation of 120 million.

WHAT PROFESSIONAL ASSOCIATIONS OF CREATIVE WORKERS ARE THERE?

The Writers' Union which unites writers and poets who have published literary or critical works of artistic value. Founded in 1932.

In 1966 the Writers' Union had a membership of nearly 6,000. Its periodicals include the weekly *Literaturnaya Gazeta* (Literary Gazette) and the monthlies *Zvezda* (Star), *Znamya* (Banner), *Druzhba Narodov* (Friendship of Peoples), *Inostrannaya Literatura* (Foreign Literature), *Novy Mir* (New World) and others. The Writers' Union has its publishing house—*«Sovetsky Pisatel»* (Soviet Writer), the Literary Institute named after Maxim Gorky and the Central House of Writers in Moscow.

There are writers' organisations in all Union and Autonomous Republics and in some administrative territories and regions.

The Union of Journalists, an organisation of professional journalists working on periodicals, in news agencies, publishing houses, the radio and television. Founded in 1959.

In 1966 the Union of Journalists had more than 40,000 members. Its periodicals are the magazines *Zhurnalist* (Journalist), *Sovetskoye Foto* (Soviet Photography) and the weekly review of foreign press *Za Rubezhom* (Events Abroad).

The Union of Journalists runs the Journalists' Club and a photographic studio in Moscow.

Union and Autonomous Republics as well as some territories and regions have their own journalist organisations.

The Union of Artists, an association of professional artists and art critics. Founded in 1939.

In 1966 the Union of Artists had a membership of more than 10,000. It publishes the magazines *Iskusstvo* (Art),

Tvorchestvo (Creative Work) and *Dekorativnoye Iskusstvo* (Decorative Art).

The Union of Composers, uniting composers and music critics, founded in 1932.

In 1966 the Union of Composers had over 1,500 members. Its periodicals are the magazines *Sovetskaya Muzyka* (Soviet Music) and *Muzykalnaya Zhizn* (Musical Life). The Union runs the Composers' Club in Moscow. The Union and Autonomous Republics have local organisations of composers and music critics of their own.

The Union of Architects, an organisation of architects and other specialists in building and architecture. Founded in 1932.

In 1966 there were over 10,000 members in the Union of Architects. It publishes the magazine *Arkhitektura SSSR* (USSR Architecture) and the review *Sovetskaya Arkhitektura* (Soviet Architecture) and runs the Architects' Club in Moscow.

The All-Russia Theatrical Society, which unites theatrical workers in the Russian Federation. Founded in 1883.

Its membership exceeded 24,000 in 1966. The All-Russia Theatrical Society runs memorial museums, a Soviet opera ensemble, a literary and drama theatre, the Actors' Club in Moscow, the Palace of Arts in Leningrad, actors' clubs in Kazan, Ufa and other cities and homes for retired actors in Moscow and Leningrad.

Some of the Union Republics have their own theatrical societies.

The Union of Cinema Workers unites film directors, cameramen, script writers and film actors. Established in 1957. It had over 4,000 members in 1966. The Union publishes the magazines *Iskusstvo Kino* (Art of Film-Making) and *Sovetsky Ekran* (Soviet Screen) and runs the Cinema Workers' Club in Moscow.

Union Republics have organisations of cinema workers of their own.

WHAT RIGHTS DO THE CREATIVE ORGANISATIONS HAVE?

They have the right to arrange exhibitions, set up studios, sanatoriums and holiday homes; arrange lectures and theatrical performances, run publishing houses; issue perio-

dicals, books. They defend the rights of their members both in the USSR and abroad, through Soviet bodies in other countries. The unions of writers, artists, composers and architects have special funds to promote the creative activities and improve the welfare of their members.

These organisations have the right to act as legal bodies, i. e., they can conclude contracts conforming to their tasks, possess property, act as plaintiffs and defendants in a court of law.

WHAT IS THE UNION OF SOVIET SOCIETIES OF FRIENDSHIP AND CULTURAL RELATIONS WITH FOREIGN COUNTRIES?

In the USSR there are more than 40 societies and associations of friendship and cultural relations maintaining contacts with various organisations in 122 countries. All these societies are united into the Union which coordinates their activities.

The Union Republics have their unions of friendship societies, with branches in major cities. The Union's periodicals are the monthly magazine *Kultura i Zhizn* (Culture and Life) and the weekly paper *Moskovskiye Novosti* (Moscow News), both published in English, French, German and Spanish.

The Union's activities are varied. It sends Soviet delegations and individuals abroad, receives similar foreign delegations, organises public functions to mark national holidays and important events, conducts literary, musical and theatrical evenings, film shows and lectures by foreign guests and Soviet people who have returned from foreign trips; it helps promote the study of the Russian language abroad, organises foreign expositions.

The work of the Union is notable for the active participation of broad sections of the Soviet public. Ten thousand people cooperate with the leading bodies of these societies. These include workers, collective farmers, engineers, statesmen, scientists, writers and artists.

WHAT OTHER PUBLIC ORGANISATIONS ARE THERE IN THE USSR?

There is a large number of scientific, technical, cultural, sports and other public organisations embracing millions of citizens.

For instance, there are 21 scientific and technical societies and more than 20 medical research societies. They promote the development of various branches of Soviet science and help introduce scientific achievements.

An important role is played by the «*Znaniye*» (Knowledge) Society, a public organisation for scholars engaging in the dissemination of scientific, technical and political knowledge. It has a membership of nearly 1,700,000 people. Lectures on various subjects arranged by the Society are attended daily by 2.5 million people.

There are many public organisations and institutions devoting their efforts to the development and consolidation of economic and cultural contacts, friendship and cooperation with the peoples of other countries, such as the Soviet Peace Committee, the Afro-Asian Solidarity Committee, Soviet Women's Committee, etc.

Organisation of the National Economy

WHAT IS THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN SOCIALIST AND CAPITALIST ECONOMIES?

The main difference between the two systems lies in the form of ownership, the nature of the economic relations between people, the aim of production and the principle applied in distributing material and cultural benefits.

Public ownership of the means of production consisting of two forms of property, i.e. public (state) property and common (cooperative) property, has developed in the USSR in the span of years and materially transformed the relations of production, the nature of labour and the form of distribution of products thereof.

Once public ownership took firm hold in the national economy the working people became the masters of production; labour force ceased to be a commodity, it could no longer be sold or bought, nor could it be exploited.

The working people began to receive material wealth according to the amount and quality of labour.

In a society where for the first time in history socialist property predominates, society can scientifically plan its

own development and its national economy on a state scale. Consequently, it develops without crises and slumps, production has no permanently idle capacities, unemployment has become a thing of the past, material resources are used to the best advantage for the benefit of society and every individual worker.

The aim of production basically changes with the transition from capitalism to socialism. Capitalist production essentially aims to extract maximum profit by exploiting hired labour.

The aim of socialist production is to satisfy as fully as possible the constantly growing requirements of each individual and the entire society through unceasing, rapid development of socialist production on the basis of technical progress.

The interests of society as a whole and the interests of the individual are interconnected under socialism. The economic progress of society directly promotes the well-being of every working man and serves to better satisfy his material and intellectual requirements.

WHAT IS THE LEVEL OF ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IN THE USSR?

The Soviet Union has a highly developed industry and a large-scale mechanised agriculture. It is a foremost producer of coke, coal, iron ore, trunk-line diesel and electric locomotives, tractors (in total horsepower), sawn timber, cement, precast ferro-concrete structural elements, woolen fabrics, butter and sugar.

Soviet industry produces practically everything the human brain has invented—from paper clips to spaceships. Extremely rich in raw material resources, the Soviet Union is effectively developing its iron and steel industry, mechanical engineering, power engineering, fuel industry, textile industry. Particular attention is given to new industries, such as radioelectronics, atomic power engineering, polymer chemical industry which today spell technical progress for all spheres of economy.

Over 200,000 industrial enterprises operate in the country. 11,000 large building organisations are engaged in capital construction.

In overall output the USSR comes next to the USA.

Agriculture plays an important role in the country's economy. In all, there are over 12,000 state farms and 37,000 collective farms. These agricultural enterprises are well equipped with machinery and facilities. Between 1961 and 1965 total agricultural output was some 75 per cent and in 1966—85 per cent of the US figure.

HOW IS THE NATIONAL ECONOMY OF THE USSR RUN?

Economy is managed by the state. The principle of democratic centralism evolved and substantiated by Lenin is the backbone of the whole system of management of the national economy.

This principle ensures the following: centralised planned management of the economy effectively combined with much latitude allowed to local authorities; unity of national and local interests; «the one-man management» principle combined with maximum development of the initiative, creativity of production collectives and individual operators.

All agencies managing the national economy are guided by the economic policy evolved in the interests of people.

The Central Committee of the CPSU and the Council of Ministers of the USSR, guided by the decisions of Party congresses, give prominence to the basic economic tasks to be fulfilled within a specified period, and supervise their fulfilment. In practice, economic activity is supervised by the USSR Council of Ministers which has the necessary machinery of administration for the purpose. Directly subordinated to the government are the ministries and a number of committees and departments.

These bodies, in turn, realise state plans for industrial development, construction, trade and carry out a unified technological policy via enterprises and organisations under their control.

All economic activities in the Union Republics are controlled by the respective Councils of Ministers via appropriate agencies.

The basic unit within the overall system of management is an enterprise. However, highly complex production with its closely interlinked and interdependent branches necessi-

tates formation of larger units such as production associations, trusts, firms, which coordinate the operation of individual enterprises.

HOW ARE INVESTMENTS IN THE ECONOMY GROWING?

Every day two or three enterprises are commissioned in the USSR.

Within the seven years between 1959 and 1965 over 240,000 million roubles were invested in industry, transport, agriculture, housing construction and the building of cultural facilities. This exceeds the investments made in all the previous years of Soviet government.

Within the same seven years 5,500 large enterprises were put into operation; state fixed assets nearly doubled.

In 1966 state capital investments amounted to 47,900 million roubles, those in collective farms made 5,600 million roubles. The sum invested by people building cooperative (jointly owned) and individual houses amounted to 2,300 million roubles.

Investments in the national economy for the period of 1966—70 are set at 310,000 million roubles. This exceeds the respective figure for the previous five-year period by 47 per cent. Fixed assets will grow nearly 1.5-fold.

WHAT PRINCIPLES UNDERLIE THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE PRODUCTIVE FORCES?

Thanks to public ownership of the means of production, productive forces can be distributed according to a plan drawn up in advance. In the USSR the guiding principle is to place industry closer to both the sources of raw materials and power and the areas of consumption. Of great importance is the specialisation and cooperation of enterprises, the comprehensive harmonious development of economic areas, and the most rational employment of natural and other resources, of manpower. By locating the leading branches according to plan, the Soviet state has built up in a historically very short span of time industrial bases in the Volga River area, the Urals, Siberia, the Far East, Kazakhstan and Central Asia.

A mere 50 years ago feudal relations dominated in Central Asia and the patriarchal system remained in the Far North and in several parts of Siberia and the Far East. The economy and culture of these regions had to be developed quickly. It is interesting to note that whereas in 1967 gross industrial output of the USSR as a whole was 66 times higher than before the Revolution, in Kazakhstan, Kirghizia and Armenia, for instance, it was respectively 101, 117 and 119 times greater.

In these regions big industrial centres were developed; railways and highways were laid and natural resources began to be tapped. The Government sent to these Republics a large amount of equipment and materials and experienced specialists, and provided the money. This is still being done, and on an increasing scale.

In 50 years Soviet Central Asia and other backward areas covered the path of centuries from the primitive hoe to electronic computers and nuclear reactors. Regions which before the Revolution imported everything down to the ordinary needle now export large quantities of machinery and equipment.

There are still certain shortcomings in the distribution of the productive forces due to historical reasons. All these faults will be remedied in the 10-15-year period by new major changes in the distribution of production capacities. New powerful economic centres will appear in Siberia, Kazakhstan, the Far East, Central Asia, the Volga River area, the Urals.

Further development of the following three areas is viewed as particularly important: the Mangyshlak Peninsula in Kazakhstan with its rich oil fields, the West Siberian lowland with its virtually inexhaustible oil and gas reserves and the Sayano-Shushensky area in East Siberia where a major industrial and agricultural complex will shortly be built on the basis of the Yenisei hydropower potential.

WHAT IS THE MATERIAL AND TECHNICAL BASIS OF COMMUNISM?

The CPSU Programme, which was adopted in 1961 at the 22nd Party Congress, determines the basic conditions of the material and technical basis of communism in the USSR:

the country's complete electrification which will make it possible to improve technology and organisation of production in all fields of the economy; comprehensive mechanisation and automation of production processes; widescale application of chemistry and all-round development of new branches of production, new kinds of materials and power; the comprehensive and rational employment of natural and material resources and man-power; the organic fusion of science with production coupled with rapid scientific and technical progress; the attainment of high cultural and technical standards by the working people; and the achievement of a considerably higher ratio of labour productivity than in the leading capitalist powers.

WHAT ARE THE ADVANTAGES OF PLANNED ECONOMIC MANAGEMENT?

Thanks to a unified state plan, which stems from the country-wide socialisation of the basic means of production, it is possible to coordinate the development of all links of production and provide for the correct and proper balance between all the branches, between manufacture and consumption, between revenue and expenditure and between demand and supply. A planned system of economic management enables capacities to be fully utilised, resources rationally allocated, all the basic assets fully employed and tremendous material resources either concentrated on one object or easily reallocated to tackle other tasks. The decisive advantage is that the whole economy can be advanced to a pre-set goal consciously, that is scientifically.

Yet, planning is not merely an economic activity, as many believe. It also involves social problems directly affecting public welfare. The plan is a combination of economic and social tasks to be solved within a specified period.

Therefore planning involves a great analytical, scientific effort in order to make correct economic decisions.

WHAT ARE THE BASIC PRINCIPLES OF PLANNING?

Balanced development planning is the principal means

enabling the socialist state to duly forestall arising disparities and build up the necessary accumulations to maintain stable high rates of economic growth. The cardinal objective of all the USSR's economic programmes is to raise the people's material and cultural levels. This is achieved by correct and proper proportions between the heavy and light industries, between agriculture and industry and between production and consumption.

Public organisations, collectives at enterprises and working people take an active part in setting the rates of advance and proportions of production and targets for improving the people's well-being. In these matters planning bodies are guided by the target figures scientifically determined in the decisions of the CPSU congresses and the decrees of the USSR Supreme Soviet.

Soviet planning is strictly scientific, governed by the Marxist-Leninist theory of expanded reproduction. It takes account of the fact that economic laws are objective, i. e. independent of the will of man. The solution of economic problems therefore does not depend on the wishful thinking of certain individuals. Economic problems are solved only if conditions for their solution have sufficiently developed. For example, a rise in wages is possible only if society is in a position to back such a rise with material riches which in turn depend on the progressively growing labour productivity.

Subjectivism in economics, i.e. adopting decisions without taking into consideration actual economic potentialities, is resolutely condemned.

There are two categories of plans. These are, firstly, current plans, covering a month, quarter, or whole year and, secondly, long-term plans, which provide for the solution of major socio-economic problems over a period of several years. The correct combination of current plans with long-term ones guarantees continuity in planning and ensures that enterprises are regularly financed and supplied with material resources and technical equipment.

The unified economic plan for the USSR as a whole is drawn up as the sum total of the plans of individual enterprises and farms and of the different branches and areas.

WHAT IS THE STRUCTURE OF STATE PLANNING AGENCIES?

The central planning agency is *Gosplan*, the State Planning Committee of the USSR Council of Ministers, which is subordinated to the USSR Council of Ministers. *Gosplan* ensures a single centralised policy in an effort to develop the leading branches of the economy. It is at once an all-Union and a Republican body. In the Union and Autonomous Republics there are state planning committees, in the regions and territories there are respective regional and territorial committees, in cities and districts—municipal and district committees. Each enterprise has its planning department which draws up plans enlisting the broadest possible participation of the workers and engineers.

The State Planning Committee is a country-wide centre set up to coordinate and dovetail all matters involved in the development of separate branches of economy and of the country's economic areas.

The State Planning Committee is charged with the task of drawing up economic plans and supervising their execution. Particular attention is given to timely commissioning of new production capacities and to mastering new types of production. Besides, the State Planning Committee is responsible for the timely adoption of measures to prevent disproportions likely to arise in the execution of the plan.

Long-term planning today assumes particular importance, which calls for ever stricter economic substantiation of plans on a sound scientific foundation. One of the chief functions of the State Planning Committee is to improve the planning procedure, to extensively use computers for optimum planning.

HOW ARE PLANS DRAWN UP?

Planning, being a science, is the expression of the latest advances in research and engineering, the fruit of progressive thought. Above all it serves state interests.

A plan consists of local conception and suggestions, advanced by provincial administrative agencies and scientifically substantiated targets mapped out by the central planning bodies.

Elaboration of a long-term economic plan takes the following course: at first trends of scientific and economic prog-

ress are examined, then natural resources are estimated, population migrations are assessed and basic economic figures are decided upon. This, however, is not planning as such; it is merely a cursory survey of the possibilities and tendencies. Actual planning consists in estimating growth rates, general resources available for expanded reproduction for the period in question; then eventual demand for a product is taken into account; finally, the structure of social production is decided upon to ensure the fulfilment of the targets.

Planning from the top and planning «by the lower echelons» converge and mutually enrich each other.

Proceeding from concrete possibilities and aims and also with an eye to the main trends of economic development generally, each enterprise, construction site, farm, economic council compiles and drafts plans which the Union Republic state planning committees then integrate into a draft plan for their respective republics.

Gosplan thoroughly analyses these drafts as well as the proposals of the ministries and departments and compiles the draft of a state-wide plan for the economic and cultural development of the USSR, which is then examined by the USSR Council of Ministers and endorsed by the USSR Supreme Soviet.

HOW WAS THE SEVEN-YEAR PLAN CARRIED OUT?

This plan was adopted at the 21st CPSU Congress in January 1959. It was drafted to cover the period from 1959 to 1965. During the seven-year period industrial output in the country grew by 84 per cent, the national income expanded on consumption and accumulation by 53 per cent.

Fixed production assets went up by 92 per cent, the volume of capital construction—by 49 per cent, the overall freight turnover—by 72 per cent. Some 17 million flats and one-family houses were built, constituting 40 per cent of the dwelling space available in the country prior to the seven-year period. Consumer goods sales went up by 60 per cent. The number of factory workers grew by 14 million, engineers and office workers, by 7 million.

Basic output targets, such as total industrial output, freight turnover, were topped.

Still output targets for agriculture were not fulfilled for a number of reasons. Because of the lag in agriculture quite a number of targets in the light and food industries were not reached either, which inevitably retarded the growth rate of the national income and was, consequently, detrimental to the public welfare.

For all that important measures were taken to improve the living standards of the people. Working hours were cut, the average and minimum wages and salaries were raised, taxation for a considerable part of the population was either reduced or abolished, collective farmers were granted state pensions. The real income of the population grew by 30 per cent.

WHY WAS THE ECONOMIC REFORM NECESSARY?

The Soviet Union is building a new society, it is exploring uncharted historic paths.

Soviet society, Soviet economy is a dynamic entity. Lenin would often repeat that Marxism is not a dogma, but a guide to action. He would stress that only practice of building socialism and communism, the day-to-day labour of millions in all fields of human endeavour, the experience they accumulate in the process, provide a foundation for the theory of socialist construction.

Numerous difficulties attended socialist construction in the USSR. The economy was progressively changing, and with it, methods of management. With the accumulation of experience, the laws and principles of the socialist mode of production and most efficient management methods began to materialize and find application. Practically each historical stage in the development of our society had an appropriate highly economic system in given conditions. For example, the system of management dominant in Soviet economy in the pre-war years was at that time necessary and effective. At the time the Soviet people had to consciously restrict demand in order to build machinery, to provide the raw material and fuel reserves necessary for building up industry. Without a mighty industry the country could not have defended her independence, won the war and rehabilitated the economy.

Today the situation is totally different. The chief economic task is to sharply raise the living standards of the Soviet people. Therefore, to-day we require methods of economic management that are conducive to rapidly expanding and improving quality. For this, it is necessary to raise the technological level of production, to achieve greater efficiency at every enterprise.

To this end, quite a number of innovations have been introduced in economic management. However, these were mainly changes in the forms of administration. Their effect was shortlived.

Meanwhile, the requirement for basically new methods of economic management and an appropriate organisation of planning was becoming increasingly imperative. It stemmed from the objective conditions of the progressively growing Soviet economy: accelerated expansion of production, appearance of new branches and the splitting up of the existing branches, further division of labour, specialisation and cooperation. Numerical growth of industrial enterprises necessitated appropriate qualitative changes in the methods of management and planning. The main drawback of the former system was that despite the growing scope of production the activities of each individual enterprise were rigidly planned by the top agencies down to a minute detail.

This fettered the initiative of the enterprise, the management, not unnaturally sought to operate the enterprise below capacity.

Society was not getting all it objectively could get under the obtaining level of economy. The disadvantages of such economic management were all too evident. Yet it took time to find appropriate solutions. Discussions, disputes were conducted at factory meetings and scientific conferences. They received country-wide press coverage and publicity on the radio.

It became evident that old methods had to go because they were detrimental to one of the basic gains of socialism, i. e. to unfettered initiative in economic management on the part of millions of workers.

The findings of this all-pervading discussion which lasted for several years and the opinion of the scientists were ultimately embodied in the decisions of the Party and the Government on economic reform.

WHAT IS THE ESSENCE OF THE NEW ECONOMIC REFORM?

The reform essentially aims to raise the scientific level of state planning, to use purely economic methods in production management, to create optimum conditions for the operation of enterprises.

Under the new system of economic management individual enterprises are accorded much latitude.

Under the reform the number of targets imposed «from the top» will be cut to include only the following:

- the volume of realised products;
- main assortment of products;
- wage fund;
- net income or profitability;
- deductions for the state budget and budget allocations for the enterprise.

All other indicators are planned by the enterprise. Such system frees the enterprises from «petty tutelage», enables the managers to adopt economically advantageous decisions on the strength of concrete conditions prevailing at a given enterprise thereby giving full play to the initiative, abilities and enterprise of the personnel.

Economic stimulation of labour is another basic feature of the current reform. The profit of an enterprise (after taxation that goes into the state budget) is to-day governed by the utilisation of the enterprise's fixed capital, by the ability of the enterprise to sell its products which depends on the efficiency of production and constant improvement of the quality thereof. The profit of an enterprise goes to form the development fund, incentive fund and construction fund (housing and communal services). Constant improvement of production efficiency causes these funds to grow.

Gratuitous financing of enterprises from the state budget is nearing an end. State allocations for capital construction and expansion of production is being gradually replaced by long-term state credits. Meanwhile current assets will be replenished from short-term credits.

Enterprises are to pay for the use of the capital goods made available to them by the state. Managers who fail to fulfil contracts can be sued for damages.

DOES THE NEW ECONOMIC SYSTEM SIGNIFY REJECTION OF THE PRINCIPLES OF CENTRALISED PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT?

No, it does not. Enhancement of the role of economic methods of management does not at all mean that the state has abandoned administrative forms of management. Centralised planning is one of the basic principles of socialism; its most important asset.

By freeing centralised planning bodies from the detailed regulation of the work of each individual enterprise, the reform enables them to concentrate on the solution of key problems. The State Planning Committee can now devote most of its time to long-term development of the national economy, distribution of productive forces, raising the efficiency of production, determining optimal rates and proportions, seeking out resources for accelerated growth of the national income—towards further improvement of public welfare.

Promotion of the sectoral principle of economic management ensures uniformity of technological policy and creates favourable conditions for accelerated scientific and technological progress in all branches of economy.

WHAT IS THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN SOCIALIST AND CAPITALIST PROFIT?

Some people think the concept of «socialist profit» unnatural. And yet, in the latter part of the 19th century Karl Marx explained in his answer to German Social Democrats that no society, even communist, could consume in a year everything it produced in that same year. Society must earmark part of its resources as reserve and contingency funds, to provide for the disabled, to finance administration and above all to be able to continuously expand production and give employment to the rising generation.

Socialist society, unquestionably, requires surplus product. Only surplus product enables it to expand and develop production, to accumulate funds. Hence, it is clear that profit under socialism is as necessary as under capitalism.

The basic question however is how profit is obtained and whose interests it serves.

V. Lenin, the founder of Soviet government, would often stress the significance of profitability of production as a foundation for expanded reproduction. He regarded profit as a yardstick to assess the efficiency of an enterprise. He thought it imperative that each state enterprise pay its way and return profit.

In Soviet conditions profit is the result of introduction of the latest techniques, improvement of production processes, efficiency of labour, thrifty management.

Under capitalism the means of production are private property.

Under socialism they are public or common property.

Profit under socialism does not belong to private individuals or companies as under capitalism. It goes either for the benefit of the enterprise and the state (if the enterprise is owned by the state) or is distributed among co-operators (shareholders, companions) as in the case of collective farms and other types of cooperatives.

In a socialist economy there is direct relationship between the growth of the surplus product, the possibilities for production development and, consequently, improvement of public welfare.

HOW IS PROFIT DISTRIBUTED AT A STATE ENTERPRISE?

Profit is appropriately divided into two parts. One part of it goes to the state budget in the form of payments for production assets made available to the enterprise by the state and in the form of the so-called turnover tax. Meanwhile the remaining share is used by the enterprise to form the development fund which also includes depreciation reserves, the incentive fund to materially stimulate labour (bonuses, grants), the fund for social and cultural needs and for housing. These funds are controlled by the director in agreement with the trade unions.

Besides, profit is used to pay for credits and loans.

HOW IS THE REFORM BEING CARRIED OUT? WHAT ARE ITS FIRST RESULTS?

The reform will be carried out in three stages:

1. Extension of the new planning system to a small number of enterprises for trial purposes.
2. Further extension of the system to whole industries.
3. Elaboration and finalising the norms and principles of the system. Nation-wide application of the system in the national economy.

Each stage is scheduled to last one year. Thus, the reform will be implemented within three years (1966-68).

In 1966 the system was extended to 704 enterprises with a total workforce of two million. These enterprises topped their targets by far and radically improved the efficiency of operation.

The volume of realised goods at these enterprises grew over 10 per cent as against the previous year (1965), and profit by 25 per cent, labour productivity by 8 per cent; some 80 per cent of the production increase was due to increased productivity. The first year proved the system to be highly effective.

WHAT IS THE STRUCTURE OF A SOVIET ENTERPRISE?

The enterprise is the basic unit of the national economy. Its activities are a combination of centralised planned management, economic latitude, and initiative. The enterprise is headed by the director. Plant management normally comprises the following departments: planning, labour and wages, personnel, supplies, marketing, technical control, capital construction, book-keeping, etc.

Technical management of the enterprise is the function of the managing director (deputy director). Immediately responsible to the managing director are the chief design engineer, chief mechanical engineer, chief electrical engineer, chief process engineer. These engineers head appropriate departments.

Shop is the basic unit of a large enterprise, and production section is that of a medium or small enterprise.

Shops are divided into sections, production lines depending on the type of production, its scope, organisation of processes. Each shop is headed by the shop master. The work of a section is controlled by a foreman with a higher or secondary technical education. Sometimes he is an experienced operator with a lengthy service record.

WHAT ARE DIRECTOR'S RIGHTS?

The director is appointed and discharged from office by a higher administrative body. He manages the enterprise on the one-man-leadership principle. He organises the operation and is held fully responsible for production. The rights of the director stem from his chief duties: fulfillment of production and financial plans, improvement of labour and living conditions of the personnel.

The director represents the enterprise in all higher bodies and organisations, controls the facilities and monetary funds of the enterprise in accordance with the law, signs contracts, authorises banking operations on behalf of the enterprise.

The director issues written orders for the personnel. He has the right to employ and discharge workers in accordance with labour legislation, to grant bonuses and to impose penalties.

Under the current economic reform the rights of the enterprise and consequently those of the director will be extended appreciably.

The director is in a position to change the pattern of the technical and managerial staffs, to raise or cut wages in order to increase labour productivity.

For all that the rights of the director are restricted. He cannot «close down» the enterprise or sell its property. He can raise or lower wages or discharge a worker only with consent of the trade union.

The director does not own the enterprise. He is the leader appointed by the people to run the enterprise belonging to the state. Hence, his relations with the personnel are based on common interests and mutual respect.

WHAT IS A SOVIET FIRM?

It is a large association comprising state enterprises allied by community of production and the mode of operation, enjoying considerable economic and administrative autonomy.

The firm has fixed and current assets, legal rights, a banking account, trade mark. It differs from a capitalist firm inasmuch as its means of production are not owned privately and the interests of the workers and the management are not in conflict.

A firm basically consists of a master enterprise with affiliated branches. The master enterprise controls all chief branches of the firm.

Firms developed fairly recently in response to further demand for concentration, specialisation and cooperation of production. They permit efficient utilisation of fixed assets, manpower, serve to provide direct contacts between production and consumers.

Firms are no longer in the experimental stage, they have become a common feature in economic life. There are several hundred firms in the country including thousands of enterprises. There are firms in nearly all branches of industry; they embrace allied enterprises in one or several economic areas and sometimes operate on a countrywide scale.

CAN THERE BE PRIVATE ENTERPRISE IN THE USSR?

Since private enterprise means drawing an unearned income and employing hired labour and exploiting wage-earners, it is forbidden. Work and work alone is the only lawful source of sustenance. One cannot start a commercial or business «concern» in the USSR, speculate or draw an unearned income. Soviet laws permit only a small enterprise on the part of an individual peasant or artisan, provided that the owner works himself and does not employ anyone.

DOES THE NEW ECONOMIC REFORM SPELL «BACK TO CAPITALISM»?

Some foreign commentators either through ignorance regarding the essence of the current economic reform or for some other reasons maintain that the reform is a «return to capitalism».

That is not so. The basis of Soviet society is public ownership of the means of production. The reform consolidates this basis. It improves methods and forms of economic management, changes the structure of management, serves to improve scientifically grounded centralised planning, to increase the efficiency of enterprises.

Such economic levers as profit, price, credit have always been utilised in Soviet economy. To-day the problem is to use these factors to the best advantage in line with current requirements of the national economy.

Industry

WHAT IS THE SOVIET SHARE IN GROSS WORLD INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION?

In 1966, the USSR accounted for nearly 20 per cent of gross world industrial production, which puts it in first place in Europe and second place in the world after the USA. It turns out more manufactured goods than Great Britain, France, Italy, Canada, Belgium, the Netherlands and Japan put together.

WHAT IS THE STRUCTURE OF INDUSTRY?

The USSR has all modern branches of industry, over 300 in all, capable of manufacturing any product it may need. The key place is occupied by the branches in the group A category (heavy industry), which is concerned with the technical re-equipment of all sectors, the electrification, mechanisation and automation of the economy, and the wide scale application of chemistry.

By the beginning of 1966, 10.6 per cent of the total fixed assets of industry fell to the iron and steel industry;

13.9 per cent, to the fuel industry; 14.9 per cent, to electric and thermal power production; 8.3 per cent, to the chemical industry; nearly 20 per cent, to the machine-building and metal-working industries; and 13.6 per cent, to the light and food industries.

WHAT IS THE RATE OF GROWTH OF INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION?

In 1966 the volume of industrial production was 66 times greater than in 1913. No other country has experienced such a rate of growth. In the United States of America, for example, industrial output increased over 1913-65 period 6.8 times, in Great Britain 2.3 times, in France 3.1 times, and in the Federal Republic of Germany 4.6 times.

The total gross increment of industrial production in 1966 was 8.6 per cent.

In 1966 the Soviet industry surpassed the 1940 level 8.6 times due to high rate of growth. It is intended to maintain the rapid pace of development in the new Five-Year Plan as well. During 1966-70 the industrial output will grow some 50 per cent.

HOW DO THE USSR AND THE USA COMPARE IN INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION?

In 1966 the industrial output of the USSR was 65 per cent of the US level.

In 1913 the industrial output of pre-revolutionary Russia comprised as little as four per cent of the world output. The country had few modern production facilities. A number of vital industries were either non-existent in Russia, or in the embryonic stage of development.

In 1920 the economy was in a state of utter devastation as a result of World War I, the Civil War and foreign armed intervention. Industrial output dropped to one-seventh of the pre-war level, comprising barely two per cent of the US level. That was the starting point of the economic competition between the USSR and the advanced capitalist

countries. In 1950 Soviet industrial output was 30 per cent that of the United States, in 1957 it was 47 per cent, and in 1966 it rose to 65 per cent. It is clear that the USSR is rapidly closing the gap. This is due to one of the vital advantages of the Soviet economic system, namely its higher rate of industrial growth. For instance, during the post-war period (1946-65) the annual rate of industrial growth of the USSR was 11.4 per cent, whereas that of the United States was 3.6 per cent; during 1951-65 the annual growth of the USSR was 10.7 per cent and that of the USA, 4.4 per cent. As a result, in the fifteen years (1951-65) the industrial output of the USSR increased 4.6 times as against 1.9 times in the USA. Let us now see what progress was made in each industry taken separately.

Power engineering. In 1950 the USSR commissioned plant with a total capacity of 2.4 million kilowatts whereas the capacity of plant commissioned in the United States was several times greater; at present the USSR is commissioning almost as many power projects (in terms of output units) as the USA.

Steel. In 1950 the Soviet industry smelted some 27.3 million tons against approximately 90 million tons in the USA. In 1965 the steel output was 91 million tons in the USSR and 121.9 million tons in the United States. In other words, within this period the USSR increased its steel production by 63.7 million tons, and the USA, by 31.9 million tons. Annual increment during the fifteen years (1951-65) was 4.2 and 1.8 million tons for the USSR and the USA, respectively.

Fuels. Extraction and production of all types of fuels during the same period in the USSR increased 3.3 times, compared with 1.4 times in the USA. For instance, oil output in the USSR within the period in question has increased from 37.9 to 243 million tons, or by 205.1 million tons, whereas the US figure was 118.2 million tons. Annual increment in the USSR was 13.7 million tons and in the USA 7.9 million tons.

Cement. In 1950 the USA produced 38.7 million tons of cement, and the USSR, 10.2 million tons. The situation has radically changed. In 1965 cement output in the Soviet Union amounted to 72.4 million tons compared with 65 million tons in the United States.

The same picture can be observed in other industries.

WHAT ARE THE RATES OF DEVELOPMENT IN HEAVY AND LIGHT INDUSTRIES?

The growth rates of both branches are high and are gradually converging. Whereas from 1929 to 1940, the average annual rate of increase in output of producers goods (group A) was much higher than that of consumer goods (group B), today this proportion has changed in favour of the light industry.

There was a time when the Soviet people, in order to rapidly build up a large-scale heavy industry, had to restrain the growth of light industry. Without heavy industry the USSR would not have been able to create a large-scale mechanised agriculture and modern light and food industries, or overcome its economic backwardness and might have lost its independence.

Today, the country has attained a level of development enabling it to speed up the growth of both heavy and light industries simultaneously. While during the 1961-65 period group A production increased 58 per cent, group B—36 per cent and the average annual rate of increase was 9.6 and 6.3 per cent respectively, in the 1966-70 period group A production will go up 49-52 per cent, group B—43-46 per cent and their average annual growth rates will be 8.7 and 7.7 per cent. Of course, priority growth of heavy industry is still the ruling principle, for otherwise there can be no expanded reproduction in general. But in the very development of group A, shifts in favour of light industry are taking place in the structure of its output. In the period of industrialisation, capital accumulation mostly went into the construction and expansion of enterprises manufacturing goods for heavy industry. Now, on the other hand, considerably more resources are expended on manufacturing the means of production needed for the light and food industries and for agriculture.

WHAT PROGRESS HAS BEEN MADE IN THE IRON AND STEEL INDUSTRY?

In 1966, the USSR produced 70,300,000 tons of iron,

96,900,000 tons of steel and 76,600,000 tons of rolled metal, and mined 160,000,000 tons of iron ore.

The Soviet Union holds first place in the world in the production of coke and steel pipes and is second to the United States only in the output of metal, while at the same time producing more metal than Britain, France and the Federal Republic of Germany combined. In per capita output of metal the USSR still lags behind the USA, Great Britain, France and the Federal Republic of Germany, but in per capita output of iron ore it has considerably outstripped all countries except France.

The USSR accounts for about one-fifth of world steel production. The Soviet iron and steel industry is equipped with first-class installations. Some blast furnaces operate with a volume of over 2,000 cubic metres. Four such furnaces produce more iron than all the 128 blast furnaces in tsarist Russia did.

A 2,300 cubic metre blast furnace was commissioned in 1965—the world's biggest. It turns out over 1.3 million tons of cast iron a year. 2,700 cubic metre blast furnaces will be built.

During the seven years ending in 1965, nearly 300 new grades of steel were introduced and 250 new sections of rolling stock. Three hundred rolling mills are in operation in the USSR, including some that are completely automated, with a yearly output of several million tons.

The Soviet steel industry will be developing at a high rate within the next few years. The plan envisages the output of 124-129 million tons of steel, 95-99 million tons of rolled stock, 94-97 million tons of cast iron and 14-15 million tons of steel pipes in 1970, and the five-year increment in the production of cast iron, steel and rolled stock will be twice as much as the total pre-war output of these items.

The assortment of metal will also be enlarged. Priority will be given to the production of light metals, copper, alloying and rare metals. Aluminium production will double, the output of copper will increase 70 per cent and more nickel, titanium and other non-ferrous, rare and precious metals will be produced.

WHAT CHANGES ARE TAKING PLACE IN THE FUEL BALANCE?

Until recently, coal dominated the country's fuel balance. But, since both oil and gas are known to be far more expedient and convenient to use as fuel, the USSR has decided to give priority to their extraction and processing. Out of the 2,300 million tons of oil extracted from the oil fields of the country during the last 100 years about 1,300 million, or more than half, were extracted during the past decade. The Soviet share in world output of oil has doubled over this period. In 1940 the USSR extracted but one-sixth of the amount of oil produced in the USA, in 1965 this gap was closed to 1.5 times. In 1966 Soviet oil extraction was 265 million tons and natural gas, 145,000 million cubic metres.

In 1970 oil production will reach 345-355 million tons, and gas production 225-240 thousand million cubic metres. The share of oil and gas in the country's fuel balance will rise from 52 per cent in 1965 to 60 per cent in 1970, and the share of coal will drop accordingly, although actually coal production will increase approximately 100 million tons and will reach 665-675 million tons in 1970. Less and less coal is now used in transport and for heating houses in towns. The time is not far off when there will be no coal used at power stations and in the steel industry, and it will mostly become a chemical raw material.

During the post-war years some 1,500 oil and gas fields have been discovered in the USSR, which have greatly increased the prospected reserves of this vital raw material. Soviet industry is outfitting the oil fields with the latest equipment—turbodrills and electric drills. Oil is being extracted from under the sea bed and deep-drilling techniques are being developed.

Intensification of oil extraction is carried out on a large scale by artificially keeping high pressure in the layer and filling with water the cavities formed after oil has been extracted. This makes it possible to keep up a high yield of oil wells with a smaller number of wells, and simultaneously to exploit several oil layers through one well. There are also other new methods of extracting oil from the layers.

Oil output between 1966 and 1970 will increase largely due to the tapping of old deposits. At the same time ex-

plotation of new big oil- and gas-bearing regions—the Tyumen Region in Western Siberia and the Mangyshlak Area in Kazakhstan will start. At the end of 1970 as much oil will be extracted in Western Siberia as today is produced in Azerbaijan—the oldest exploited oil fields in the country—that is, more than 20 million tons.

The vast expanses of our country call for the creation of a developed network of oil and gas pipelines. Today the overall length of the pipelines is over 70,000 km.

The second section of the high-capacity Bukhara-Urals gas pipeline was commissioned in 1965. The Urals also receives Siberian gas supplied through the Igrim-Nizhny Tagil pipeline. Construction of the world's longest (over 3,000 kilometres) gas pipeline has been started between Central Asia and Central Russia. The first line will be commissioned in 1967 and the second and third lines will later be laid alongside. In all, these three lines will supply the industrial regions of Central Russia and the western and north-western parts of the country with over 30 thousand million cubic metres of gas a year. The capacity of the gas pipeline will be still further increased during the following years. Another huge gas line will be built from Western Siberia to the central and north-western regions within the next few years. It will be a double pipeline transporting over 21,000 million cubic metres of gas a year. The total length of the country's gas pipeline will increase by at least 25,00 kilometres in the 1966-70 period.

HOW MUCH ELECTRIC POWER DOES THE USSR PRODUCE AND WHAT ARE THE FUTURE PROSPECTS?

The USSR is first in Europe and second in the world in production of electric power.

In 1966 the USSR generated 545,000 million kwh of electricity. In 1970 it will mount to 830,000-850,000 million kilowatt-hours. The estimated capacity of Soviet power plants was 124 million kilowatts at the beginning of 1967, i. e., over a hundred times more than in 1913. In 1966 alone facilities with a capacity of over ten million kilowatts were commissioned. The bulk of electricity is produced by thermal stations, among them the world's

biggest Pridneprovskaya station with a capacity of 2,400,000 kilowatts.

Before the Second World War, the most powerful hydroelectric plant in the country was the 650,000 kw Dnieper station. The year 1958 saw the commissioning of the 2,300,000 kw Volga hydroelectric station named after Lenin which surpasses the Grand Coulee in the USA (1,974,000 kw), the biggest hydroelectric plant in the capitalist world. In September 1961 the 2,563,000 kw Volga hydroelectric station was launched. Early in 1964 the world biggest Bratsk hydroelectric station on the Angara River in Siberia began to operate at full capacity of 3,800,000 kw. By the end of 1966 its capacity was brought to four million kw.

Electrification is to develop on an even larger scale in future. New plant with a capacity of over 64 million kilowatts will be commissioned in the 1966-70 period.

WHAT POWER STATIONS ARE UNDER CONSTRUCTION IN THE USSR?

The main trend in power development will be the construction of big thermal power stations with a capacity of 2.4 million kilowatts and over and with turbines of 300, 500 and 800 thousand kilowatt capacity each. In 1966 there were twelve thermal stations with a capacity of one million kilowatts and more, and in 1970 there will be 30 of them, including the Konakovo station, the Krivoi Rog, Lithuanian, Yermakov and Starobeshevsky stations. In 1967 a unique power unit with a capacity of 500,000 kilowatts will be installed for the first time at the Nazarovskaya thermal station and a 800,000 kilowatt unit at the Slavyanskaya station.

Hydropower engineering will develop mainly in Siberia, Central Asia and Kazakhstan where 80 per cent of hydropower resources are concentrated.

On the Angara River the Irkutsk and Bratsk power stations will be joined by the Ust-Ilim and Boguchan stations which will complete the Angara chain of power stations with a capacity of over 14 million kilowatts.

Still bigger power stations will be built on the Yenisei—

the Sayan, Krasnoyarsk, Sredne-Yenisei and Nizhne-Tungusk stations — the aggregate capacity of which will be about 27 million kilowatts.

The largest Krasnoyarsk hydroelectric station will be on the Yenisei River in Siberia, with an overall capacity of 6 million kw and a total annual output of up to 20,000 million kilowatt-hours. It will be the first of a series of hydro-power plants to be built on that river. First 500 kw units will start operating in 1967. Another is the Sayan, which will also have a capacity of six million kw, but will be equipped with larger turbogenerator units, capable of producing up to 23,000 million kilowatt-hours of electricity a year. The Nizhne-Lena hydroelectric station with a fantastic capacity of 20 million kw is being designed now.

More stations are being added to the series already in operation on the Dnieper, the Volga and the Kama. Large hydroelectric stations are also going up in Central Asia and Kazakhstan. Prominent among these is the Nurek on the Vakhsh River with a capacity of 2,800,000 kw.

The first Soviet tidal power station is under construction on the Kola Peninsula, a region poor in power resources.

Since 1954, when the world first 5,000 kw atomic power station was commissioned, the Soviet atomic power industry has made big headway.

HOW IS THE PROBLEM OF A SINGLE POWER GRID FOR THE USSR BEING SOLVED?

Not a single country in the world has electric transmission lines of such length and such high tension (500 and 800 kilovolts) as the Soviet Union.

The unification of the three most powerful systems of electric stations in Central Russia, Southern Russia and the Urals has formed a tremendous united power grid of the European part of the USSR, covering half of all the power stations in operation at present. The problem now is to unite the European power grid with the north-west power system of four Republics—Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Byelorussia, and then with the power systems of the Leningrad Region, the Kola-Karelian and Caucasian regions. This will

complete the united power grid of the European part of the USSR (in the 1966-70 period).

The next stage will be the unification of the European power grid with the Central Siberian and North Kazakhstan power systems by means of direct and alternating current lines. Construction of d.c. current transmission lines (with 1.5 million volts tension) will be started in these regions. This project will actually complete the construction of the unified power grid of the Soviet Union. It will be the world's most technically advanced unified power grid.

WILL THE USSR POWER GRID BE UNITED WITH POWER GRIDS OF OTHER COUNTRIES?

The Soviet power systems are even now united with those in foreign countries. Contacts have been established by the *Mir* power system uniting West Ukrainian, and north-western power stations with stations in Hungary, the German Democratic Republic, Poland, Czechoslovakia and Rumania. Experience has proved the economic effect and advantage of united power systems. It is beyond any doubt that in the future the united power grid of the USSR will be connected with power grids in many countries.

WHAT IS MEANT BY «BIG CHEMISTRY»?

«Big Chemistry» is what we sometimes call the large-scale chemical industry that is being rapidly built up. The rates of growth of the chemical industry for recent years have been 14 to 15 per cent, i. e. about 1.4 times higher than those of industrial production as a whole.

The USSR is second in the world in overall output of chemical products. During 1958-65 it increased 2.5 times. However, the vast opportunities chemistry has to offer industry have not yet been utilised to the full. For that reason the Soviet Union is pushing the development of a large-scale chemical industry, which will for its part speed up the intensification of agriculture, increase the amount of consumer goods production and accelerate progress in other sectors of the national economy. The output of chemical products will have doubled in the 1966-

70 period. The output of mineral fertilisers will be 62-65 million tons a year, synthetic resins 2.1-2.3 million tons and chemical fibre 780-830 thousand tons. There will be a considerable increase in the output of synthetic materials for the manufacture of fabrics, knitted goods and artificial furs. The production of chemical consumer goods and other items of domestic use will grow two and a half or three times over.

HOW DOES ENGINEERING DEVELOP?

At present Soviet engineering is able to meet any need in modern technology. Many engineering products are as good or better than anything produced elsewhere. For example, the productivity of the bloomings commissioned at the Krivoi Rog and Chelyabinsk steel plants in 1964 is much higher than that of the biggest bloomings abroad. The world's most powerful turbines and generators are manufactured in this country. Production has started of the most up-to-date equipment for blast furnaces, for the cement industry, and for the biggest excavators. Of late 1,300 sets of modern automated and semi-automated production lines for the metal-working industries have been manufactured.

At the same time there are still plants whose production is not up to standard. For that reason it is an important task for the engineering plants to improve the quality of manufactured goods as much as possible in the 1966-70 period. The output of instruments, automation, control and regulation devices for production processes will be increased within the next five years along with the manufacture of precision instruments.

The motor industry will also develop rapidly. The manufacture of lorries will rise 60 to 70 per cent and cars, almost 300 per cent. This will be made possible by expanding the existing plants and building new ones. The manufacture of cars will grow from 616 thousand units to 1,360-1,510 thousand units.

Particular attention will be given to the development of branches producing equipment for the food and light industries. The number of machines to equip knitted goods factories will double and the amount of dyeing and finishing machines will triple. The output of equipment for the food industry will climb 50 per cent, for trade and public cater-

ing establishments, 70 per cent. Serial production of about three thousand new types of highly productive machines for the light and food industries will start.

HOW MANY MACHINE-TOOLS DOES THE USSR TURN OUT?

In 1966 the USSR manufactured 191,000 metal-cutting tools (the United States manufactured 153,800 in 1964). The Soviet Union is the world biggest producer and also exporter in this line. Many Soviet automatic machine tools, in particular electronic models with programme control, have won renown on the world market.

In the near future the country will manufacture more precision and high-precision machine tools, special machines, grinding and finishing machines, automatic and semi-automatic machines and also automatic production lines. In 1970, 220,000 or 230,000 machines will be manufactured.

WHAT IS BEING DONE IN THE LINE OF AUTOMATION OF PRODUCTION?

Comprehensive mechanisation and automation are the major trends in raising productivity and lightening labour. Basic production processes have, in the main, been mechanised. The stock of machine tools in operation tops that of the United States. Several thousand automatic, semiautomatic and production lines are functioning in industry. All the basic processes in mining and conveying coal have been fully mechanised; felling and haulage of timber virtually 100 per cent, earthwork and freight handling operations, construction and erection work more than 90 per cent. The ploughing, sowing and harvesting of grain has been mechanised almost completely and there has been extensive mechanisation of freight handling operations on the railways and in sea and river ports. Mechanisation and automation especially affect machine-building enterprises. There are plants that are completely automatic.

Complete automation is most widespread in electric power production, the chemical industry, the iron and steel industry, oil refining, various sectors of machine-engineer-

ing, especially the motor industry, and a number of sectors of the light and food industries.

Despite the fact that the plants and factories are sufficiently equipped with the most up-to-date machinery the share of manual labour is reducing slower than necessary. This is to be explained by the gap in levels of mechanisation of the main and auxiliary processes. In future when complex mechanisation of shops and whole plants is completed, the worker's labour will come close to the work of the technician and engineer and will gradually be reduced to adjusting automated machines and production lines.

HOW IS RADIOELECTRONICS DEVELOPING?

Soviet electronic engineering has made it possible for millions of viewers at home and abroad to watch Soviet cosmonauts in orbit. Radio-television installations have photographed and transmitted to earth pictures of the far side of the Moon and provided scientists with important information about Venus, Mars, Jupiter and Mercury. The communication sputnik *Molnia-1* has been successfully tested.

Radioelectronics is developing faster than any other industry. By the beginning of 1966 the volume of aggregate production of all branches of radioelectronics had increased more than 300 per cent as compared with 1959.

New enterprises producing electronic computers and other machines have been commissioned, and already existing plants have been reconstructed. Research facilities have been considerably extended. Radioelectronics has won a firm place in chemistry, biology and medicine. Its level and scope of development have also contributed to the creation of effective means of defence.

HOW IS ELECTRONICS APPLIED IN INDUSTRY?

«Thinking», «solving», and «controlling» cybernetic devices have been introduced in industry and transport. Scientists say that in science alone these devices have done more

calculating in their «lifetime» than mankind had done until then.

The planned economy has made it possible to open the road to cybernetics in all main economic sectors. A large number of digital and analogue computers are now in use in the USSR. They have helped solve problems connected with mechanisation of calculations in scientific and engineering research. They are employed for all-round automated control of production processes in the chemical, tire, oil refining, metallurgical and other industries with a continuous technological cycle.

Mass production has been started of new electronic computers, such as *Minsk-22*, *Razdan-3* and *Ural-11*. They are equipped with unified devices for the input and output of information, and memory devices having magnetic tape recorders with transistor controls.

The objective is to create a system of automated control of production at all big industrial enterprises. Even now the «thinking» machines solve some problems of production and in future will solve all the problems involved in accounting, planning, control over production, etc.

The Government has outlined measures to develop mechanisation and automation of engineering processes and managerial jobs. A system of computing centres to store and process information on economics and solve the problems of planning and control over the national economy is being organised. In addition industrial and departmental computing centres will be set up.

The USSR Academy of Sciences has been entrusted together with ministries and other institutions with developing the scientific basis for a single system of optimal planning, accounting and supervising the national economy.

HOW ARE THE LIGHT AND FOOD INDUSTRIES DEVELOPING?

It is considered of prime importance to increase the amount of consumer goods produced. During 1966-70 it is planned to build about 300 large enterprises and reconstruct over a hundred old ones. The average annual growth rate in light industry will go up 2.1 times. Particular at-

tention will be given to the development of the knitted goods industry. During the five years there will be built 75 factories. More than a hundred garments factories will be commissioned along with new plants which will make 120 million pairs of shoes a year. Many existing shoe factories will be reconstructed.

The light industry will have to improve the assortment of goods and systematically design new items.

The output of the food industry will increase 40 per cent during the 1966-70 period. The state will produce: meat, 5.9-6.2 million tons; fish, 8.5-9 million tons; milk and dairy products, 16-17 million tons; butter, 1.1 million tons; cheese, 625,000-675,000 tons; oil, 2.9-3.1 million tons; sugar (from sugar-beet), 9.8-10 million tons.

HOW MUCH CLOTH AND FOOTWEAR DOES THE USSR PRODUCE?

Overall output of the textile industry in 1966 reached 7,700 million square metres of cloth, of which 5,700 million square metres were cotton fabrics; 509 million woollens; 591 million linens; and 869 million silks. That same year the shoe industry manufactured 522 million pairs of shoes.

In 1970 the manufacture of fabrics of all kinds will reach 9,500-9,800 million square metres; knitted goods, 1,650-1,750 million pieces and footwear, 610-630 million pairs.

HOW RAPIDLY DOES THE PRODUCTION OF DURABLE GOODS INCREASE?

Before the Second World War, refrigerators, TV sets, washing machines and vacuum cleaners were only produced on a small scale. Today the annual output of these and many other durables has increased to millions of units. In 1966, for example, Soviet industry turned out 5,800,000 radios and radiograms, 4,400,000 TV sets, 2,200,000 refrigerators, 3,900,000 washing machines, 4,000,000 bicycles and motor bikes, 753,000 motorcycles and scooters, over 32,400,000 watches and clocks. The demand for these items is growing all the time, for purchasing power is steadily rising. But the demand for some goods (cars, refrigera-

tors) has not yet been fully satisfied. 7.5-8 million radio sets and radiograms will be manufactured in 1970; 7.5-7.7 million TV sets, 5.3-5.6 million refrigerators. This will make it possible to meet the demand for these items to a considerable extent.

Agriculture

HOW DID PEASANTS LIVE IN OLD RUSSIA?

Pre-revolutionary Russia had 20 million peasant households of which nearly two-thirds were on the verge of disaster. Approximately 30 per cent of all the households had no horse, 34 per cent had no farm implements and 15 per cent sowed no crops. The peasants suffered from lack of land, they were burdened by heavy debts and rent paid out to the state and the big landowners.

On the second day following the victory of the October Revolution of 1917 the Decree on Land, which expressed the demands of the Russian peasants, was adopted. Land was proclaimed state property and was turned over to the working people. The lands of big landowners were confiscated without recompense. The peasants received gratis more than 150 million hectares of land above the holdings that they had tilled before the Revolution. They were fully exempted from rent and land purchases payments which had amounted yearly to 700 million gold roubles. Their debts were annulled: the sum of their debts only to the Agricultural Bank amounted to some 15,000 million gold roubles. Finally, the peasants were provided with all the imple-

ments that had formerly belonged to the landlords, and this amounted to hundreds of millions of roubles. Thus the Revolution gave the peasants considerable economic advantages.

WHAT IS THE PLACE OF AGRICULTURE IN THE COUNTRY'S ECONOMY TODAY AND YESTERDAY?

Old Russia was an agrarian country. Seventy-five per cent of the employed population were engaged in agriculture. Agriculture made up 57.9 per cent of the gross social product.

Now the situation has changed completely. Agriculture accounts for only 16.5 per cent of the gross social product, although in 1966 its output was 2.7 times as great as in 1913.

The number of people engaged in farming has been halved, and labour productivity increased five times as compared with old Russia.

The annual average number of workers in agriculture amounts to about 26 million, which is a little over one-fourth of all the gainfully employed population. The USSR agriculture accounts for 21.5 per cent of the country's national income.

WHAT IS A STATE FARM?

It is a state-owned agricultural enterprise.

The first *sovkhozes* (state farms) were set up soon after the October Revolution of 1917. The decree on land envisaged that special economies including plantations, orchards, nurseries, should not be divided but made into model farms and, depending on their size and significance, turned over to the state or the commune. In 1918-19 hundreds of state farms were set up on the basis of such economies. Two tasks faced them: to supply the town with cheap farm produce and, by their own example, to convince the peasants of the advantages of large-scale farming.

The state farms did not compete with the peasants. On the contrary, they helped them to raise the standards of agriculture, to properly organise collectively-owned production and to till the soil. Now the best of these show

the collective farms an example of high standards of organisation of social production, of the most effective utilisation of land and machinery for the purpose of obtaining the greatest possible quantity of products at the least possible expenditure of labour and money.

The state farms occupy a major place in the gross output of farm produce. In 1966, for instance, their share in the grain production amounted to 54 per cent, cotton—20 per cent, vegetables—56 per cent, meat—41 per cent, milk—42 per cent, and eggs—49 per cent.

There are over 12,000 state farms in the country. The annual average number of state farm workers engaged in the basic production processes make up 8 million. Crop areas amount to 90,000 hectares. State farms have 700,000 tractors, 270 grain harvesting combines, 25 million head of cattle.

State farms usually specialise in a certain branch of agriculture. They are highly productive enterprises that are fully equipped with all the necessary requisites. Each grain-growing state farm has an average of 832 workers, 40,800 hectares of arable land including 23,000 hectares of crop area, 3,300 head of cattle, 1,600 pigs, 4,000 sheep, 266 tractors (calculated in 15 h. p. units) and other implements.

Like every state socialist enterprise state farm is organised on a planned basis.

All state farm workers and other employees get wages, as well as bonuses for overfulfilling the plans. All state farm employees are members of a trade union organisation and enjoy all the rights of industrial workers, getting paid holidays, grants and pensions.

A state farm is run by a manager who is appointed by a corresponding state organisation. The manager runs the farm on the one-man authority principle and his orders and decisions are obligatory for all. However, a manager's work is based on the support of the collective. All state farm employees take an active part in managing production. At their meetings and production conferences they discuss and make decisions on major economic and cultural problems pertaining to the state farm's life.

The Soviet Government has decided to introduce cost accounting at all state farms. This will give them greater independence in their economic activities, in planning,

organising and realising output. This will raise the significance of profits and profitability and stimulate the material interest of the entire collective and every worker in the results of their labour. Experience has already shown that this practice leads to the growth of production and labour remuneration.

WHAT IS A COLLECTIVE FARM?

It is a collectively owned enterprise, uniting the farmers of one or several villages.

The first *kolkhozes* (collective farms) were formed almost immediately after the establishment of Soviet power. Their members were mostly poor peasants.

In the years that followed other types of agricultural cooperatives were formed: partnerships for joint working of the land, machine and land reclamation partnerships, agricultural artels, market and credit cooperatives. The Communist Party and the Soviet Government gave every consideration to the establishment and strengthening of communes, artels and other forms of collective economies.

In their activities they proceeded from Lenin's well-known thesis that the voluntary cooperation of peasants is the most simple, understandable and accessible means of organising small, scattered peasant households into huge socialist enterprises.

The Soviet Government provided extensive financial and organisational assistance to the collective farms. In 1925 the country already numbered some 55,000 agricultural cooperatives of different types: the sugar-beet growers' cooperative comprised some 600,000 households, the cotton-growers' cooperative—more than 700,000 households and the dairy cooperative—772,000 households. In 1929 all agricultural cooperatives comprised more than 13 million members or approximately 55 per cent of all the poor peasant and middle peasant households. By this time the peasants had already gone through their «elementary» school of collectivisation, they shared in the experience of state farms and had acquainted themselves in practice with the advantages of a large machine-equipped economy. The most rational form of cooperation—the farmers' artel, or

the *kolkhoz*—where the personal interests of the member-farmers are combined to the best advantage with their common interests, had become clearly defined. It was no surprise then that the mass movement for collectivisation spread throughout the country in 1929-30 when the middle peasants who constituted the bulk of the rural population at that time, on the basis of their own experience, preferred the large-scale collective economy to their small households. By 1937 millions of petty households had given way to 234,000 collective farms which comprised 93 per cent of all the personal households. The Soviet village was reorganised on a socialist basis.

Collectivisation was promoted by the rapid development of industry. For without a powerful industry, without a highly developed tractor and farm implement industry it would have been impossible to build the necessary economic basis for such a radical reorganisation of the village.

On joining the collective farms the peasants socialised the basic means of production: farm implements, draught animals, seeds, fodder for collectively-owned livestock, and farm buildings.

The collective farmers are the owners of the collective farm and all of its wealth. They are the only ones who have the right to manage their collective husbandry and everything it produces. The general farmers' meeting is the supreme management body of collective farm's affairs. It elects the chairman, management board and auditing commission. The collective farm chairman carries out the will of the farmers and reports to them on his work. The meeting hears reports on economic activities of the management board. If the chairman has lost the trust of the farmers, the general meeting dismisses him from his post.

The collective farms are guided in their activities by the Rules adopted by the congress of collective farmers in 1935 and confirmed by the Government. The Rules are not meant to be automatically binding for all collective farms. Each farm can introduce and does introduce additions and amendments bearing in mind local features and conditions.

At present a new version of the Rules of the Agricultural Artel is being worked out that will take into account the experience accumulated by collective farms in recent years.

WHY DO SOVIET FARMERS PREFER LARGE-SCALE COLLECTIVE FARMS TO SMALL, INDIVIDUAL ONES?

Because a large-scale collective farm is more profitable. Large-scale production, in industry and agriculture, has greater advantages than a small-scale individual production. The reorganisation of small peasant households into large-scale farms is an inevitable historical process. Under capitalism it involves the ruin of small farms and their assimilation by more powerful rivals.

Under the Soviet system the capitalist way of agricultural development was out of the question. It was necessary to establish large-scale modern farms without impoverishing the petty farmers. The socialist way of rural reorganisation was based on the amalgamation of petty farmers into new, socialist agricultural enterprises.

The collectivisation and mechanisation of agriculture have led to radical changes in the economy, the daily life and the cultural standards of the rural population. The farmer's work has been made easier and more productive. The countryside has forever done away with poverty. The collective farms have provided all peasants with an opportunity to live well. The incomes of collective farms increase every year. The countryside has long done away with illiteracy. All rural children go to school, and many continue their education in colleges and universities. At present, 305 out of every 1,000 collective farmers have secondary and higher education.

The collective-farm system, the socialist mode of life in the Soviet village has stood all the hardships of war. The fascist invaders destroyed and reduced to ashes more than 70,000 villages and settlements; they ravaged and plundered 98,000 collective farms, 1,876 state farms and 2,890 machine and tractor stations; they slaughtered or transported to Germany seven million horses, 17 million head of cattle, 20 million pigs, 27 million sheep and goats.

A year after the war the country was stricken by a catastrophic drought that equalled that of 1921. But in 1949 the growth of agricultural production had already reached the pre-war level.

WHAT IS THE ROLE OF COLLECTIVE FARMS IN THE COUNTRY'S ECONOMY?

The country has over 37,100 collective farms including 600 collective fisheries.

The average annual number of collective farmers who take part in common labour processes make up 18.4 million. The total crop area of collective farms is 105 million hectares; they number over 39 million head of cattle, 25 million pigs, 54 million sheep, 775,000 tractors, 225,000 grain harvesting combines and other machines.

A modern collective farm is a large-scale mechanised and economically developed enterprise. In 1965 each collective farm had an average of six thousand hectares of arable land including three thousand hectares under crops; there was an average of 1,038 head of cattle, 667 pigs, 1,460 sheep, and an average of 37 tractors (in 15 h.p. units), six combines and other implements.

Collective farms account for half of all the marketable agricultural produce.

HOW DOES THE STATE HELP COLLECTIVE FARMS?

It helps them by meeting their requirements for modern machinery, chemicals and other means of production, by training hundreds of thousands of highly qualified farm specialists and by financing collective farms; by developing agricultural science and helping introduce its achievements in production.

At the beginning of 1965 the state raised the purchase prices for staple grain crops and established higher prices for the sale of surplus farm produce. Additional payments were introduced for animal produce. As of January 1966 there has been a cut in wholesale prices for trucks, tractors, farm implements and other machines employed in agriculture; collective farms were provided with electricity from state power stations at reduced rates. Economically weak farms were absolved from their debts to state financial bodies. The system of crediting collective farms was improved. Changes were introduced into the system of taxation. The previous practice of taxing the farm's gross income which included the cost of production, was supplanted by taxing

only the net income of the farm which remains after payments have been made to the All-Union Social Insurance Fund minus the income that makes up 15 per cent of the farm's profitability. This has brought down the income tax paid out by the farms twice. The state allocates considerable sums for the social insurance fund for collective farmers and finances all the basic operations regarding land reclamation.

To imagine the sum total of all the state expenses for agricultural development, suffice it to say that in 1966-70 the state will allocate more than 10,000 million roubles for land reclamation work alone.

The volume of state capital invested within the same period in agriculture for industrial construction and the purchase of farm implements and machines will amount to 41,000 million roubles, which is approximately the sum that was invested in agriculture between 1946 and 1964.

WHAT IS A WORK-DAY UNIT?

It is a measure of work and payment for labour on a collective farm. A work-day unit is an economic rather than a calendar conception. It is used for measuring not the quantity of time, but the amount of work done and, correspondingly, the amount of payment for that work. The greater the amount of work done on the farm and the higher the farmer's qualifications and efficiency of his work, the greater the number of work-day units to his credit. The output rates are worked out by the collective-farm management board and are confirmed by the general meeting of the collective farmers in conformity with the conditions on the given farm and the complex character of the work.

The incomes of collective farmers depend not only on the number of work-day units they accumulate, but also on the amount of the goods in kind and money calculated for each work-day unit. And this calculation depends on the state of affairs on the collective farm. The bigger the crop in the fields and orchards, the greater the productivity of livestock breeding, and the higher the cash incomes of the collective farm, the greater the quantity of products in kind and of sums in cash calculated per work-day unit.

Hence the material incentive of the collective farmer in developing the collectively-owned economy.

The incomes according to work-day units are distributed at the end of the year, and, before that, advance payments are made both in cash and in kind.

The work-day unit system came into being simultaneously with the collective farms. In those days, collective farms were quite small, and their cash incomes were not very great. The situation has since changed.

There has been a greater influx of machines and specialists. Scientific achievements are applied on an ever increasing scale. Small collective farms have been amalgamated into large economies. Many of them, having achieved high economic development and consolidated their financial position have switched over from distributing income according to work-day units to monthly monetary payments according to established rates.

An extensive complex of measures undertaken by the Communist Party and the Soviet Government in recent years to raise the level of agricultural production has brought in good results. There has been a considerable increase in the incomes of farms and collective farmers from the publicly-owned economy.

That is why the Party and the state have recommended the farms to introduce this system of remuneration on the basis of the rates established for the corresponding categories of workers at state farms. The output rates are fixed in conformity with concrete conditions at each particular farm.

The introduction of the monetary system of monthly payments for collective farmers is true proof of the radical improvement of the entire system of distribution of farm income.

HOW DOES A COLLECTIVE FARM DISTRIBUTE ITS INCOME?

The plan for distributing income in cash and in kind is drawn up by the collective-farm management board and confirmed by the general meeting of the collective farmers. It determines the quantity of products that should be sold, the quantity of products and the sum of money allotted for

the payment of labour, and for setting up and replenishing various commonly-owned funds.

The collective farms constantly increase their indivisible funds, one of the most important of their commonly-owned funds. It serves as the foundation for the growth of production and improvement of the farmers' living and cultural standards. In 1932, the indivisible funds of the collective farms amounted to 470 million roubles, and in 1966 to 37,000 million roubles.

Income in kind minus the produce that is intended for the market makes up the social funds of the collective farms: seed, forage and insurance funds; is paid out to farmers as labour remuneration; is allotted to the assistance fund for sick farmers, soldiers' families and for the maintenance of creches.

Income in money makes up the fund of monetary payments to farmers, goes to finance the farms' current expenses, taxes, insurance payments, credit payments, capital investments, building operations, purchase of machines.

The main part of the collective farm income goes to the wage fund for the collective farm members. Three to four per cent of the farm income is contributed to the All-Union Social Insurance Fund to pay out grants and pensions to the collective farmers. A part of the income is allocated to meet the cultural requirements of the collective farmers, such as construction of clubs, kindergartens, creches, schools, sports facilities, accommodation in sanatoriums.

HOW FAST DO COLLECTIVE-FARM INCOMES GROW?

Here is how the picture looks in figures (in comparable prices)

	1953	1958	1960	1963	1966
Total sum of collective-farm incomes (in thousands of millions of roubles)	4.96	13.20	13.34	16.10	23.1
Sum of cash income per one collective-farm household (in roubles)	252	701.5	780.7	996	1,596

These sums do not include the cost of products in kind given to the collective farmers according to their work-day units, or the cost of seeds, fodder and other products left for the farm's needs, the increase of the head of the farm herd, new plantations and the cost of materials of local production used for construction work. They also do not include the incomes the collective farmers get from subsidiary husbandry.

IS THE RIGHT OF COLLECTIVE FARMERS TO PERSONAL PROPERTY PROTECTED BY LAW?

Article 7 of the USSR Constitution says in part:

"Every collective-farm household, in addition to its basic income from the collective farm, has for its own use a small plot of land attached to the house and, as its own property, a dwelling house, livestock, poultry, and minor agricultural implements—in conformity with the Rules of the Agricultural Artel."

In 1966 the personally-owned husbandry of collective farmers and state-farm workers and employees made up 29,300,000 head of cattle, 16,500,000 pigs, 33,300,000 sheep and goats and millions of poultry. The State Bank provides farmers, workers and employees with credits for the purchase of cows and heifers.

A collective farmer's personally-owned husbandry is of a subsidiary nature, while the collectively-owned husbandry is the real foundation of a collective farmer's well-being.

HOW IS COLLECTIVE-FARM PRODUCE SOLD?

Collective farms, in the same way as all other enterprises in the country, plan their own production and sales. They sell the bulk of their produce to the state, or, to be precise, to the state procurement organisations, which are the main wholesale customers. Farms therefore have a permanent guaranteed market. In setting the procurement prices for farm produce the state takes into account the fact that they should completely cover the costs of collective farm production and also ensure the accumulation required for the expansion of production and for raising the collective farmers' incomes.

In this connection the introduction of the new system of planning agricultural purchases at the beginning of 1965 had great impact on the further development of agricultural production. Fixed procurement plans were established for a number of years. A stable plan has been worked out for grain purchases amounting to 55.7 million tons yearly for the period of 1966-70. Stable yearly plans have been fixed for the same period for other farm and animal produce. At the same time purchase prices were raised for wheat, rye, barley, millet, rice and other cereals, and for certain kinds of animal produce. They were established with regard to zonal and district peculiarities. The raising of purchase prices has had no influence on retail prices for the corresponding products.

Inasmuch as the stable plan for grain purchases cannot meet the requirements of the entire country, surplus grain purchases have been introduced. Prices for surplus purchases have been raised by 50 per cent to stimulate production and sales.

A stable purchase plan has given the farms more scope for economic initiative and greater prospects. The raising of purchase prices and fixing of stimulating prices have enabled the collective farms to receive particularly high incomes the very first year, although it had been most unfavourable with regard to weather conditions.

The collective farms also sell their produce to consumer cooperatives at prices close to state prices, and a part of the produce directly to consumers at prices prevailing on the collective-farm markets.

HOW IS AGRICULTURAL MANAGEMENT ORGANISED?

Agricultural production is supervised by the USSR Ministry of Agriculture and the Republican ministries.

The ministry coordinates the plans for agricultural production, takes decisions on planning and economic problems of developing agriculture, studies and determines the prices for farm produce, is concerned with inner-branch planning, developing agricultural science, generalising and spreading advanced experience in agricultural production. It is also concerned with supplying agriculture with modern machi-

nery, chemical fertilisers, chemical and biological insecticides and other problems.

Local (regional, district) agricultural departments render practical help to collective and state farms.

The All-Union Agricultural Equipment Supply Organisation—*Soyuzselkhoztekhnika*—supplies the farms with machinery and materials. State procurements are organised by the State Procurement Committee.

WHAT ARE THE MOST IMPORTANT BRANCHES OF AGRICULTURE?

Crop growing and livestock breeding, with the former predominating. Crops are grown in a great variety of soil and climatic zones, stretching from frosty Siberia to the hot subtropical areas of Georgia, from the sunscorched deserts of Central Asia to the moisture-abounding lands of Byelorussia and the Soviet Baltic Republics. Out of the 26 soil varieties known in the world 19 are to be found in the USSR. These include the richly fertile black soil of the south, the podzol, the swamp soils, requiring much work on drainage and needing large quantities of fertiliser before becoming really fertile. There are also the light chestnut soil and the parched sands needing irrigation.

Yet, in spite of these difficult conditions crop growing keeps improving. In Soviet times the country's arable area has almost doubled in size, reaching a total of 207 million hectares in 1966. Of these some 200 million hectares are worked by state and collective farms. The remaining seven million odd hectares are in the personal holding of farmers and state-farm workers.

HOW IS GRAIN PRODUCTION DEVELOPING?

In 1966, the USSR gathered 170.8 million tons of grain. In 1960, the figure amounted to 125.5 million tons, in 1940, to 95.6 million tons. The growth of grain production is the result of the reorganisation carried out in recent years.

Grain harvests are greatly influenced by weather conditions, for the chief grain-producing areas of the USSR

are often subjected to severe droughts, early frosts and other whims of nature. That is why the chief task of the grain economy is to achieve high and stable crops. To this effect extensive land reclamation measures will be undertaken, arable land will be used more efficiently, the most advantageous crop rotations and land cultivation methods corresponding to each particular zone will be employed, the best varieties of grain will be introduced on a wider scale, fertilisers and plant protective means will be broadly utilised, soil erosion will be combated and preventive forest belts will be planted on a wide scale.

All this will raise the stable average yearly grain crop take-in to 167 million tons.

WHAT CAME OUT OF THE VIRGIN-LAND DEVELOPMENT?

It resulted in a substantial increase in foodstuff resources, and especially in grain. Having ploughed up in a short period of time 42 million hectares of virgin and fallow lands, the Soviet people created a new granary in the east of the country, and an abundance of grain and other products. It is true, the yields there depend to a great extent on the whims of nature.

Hundreds of state farms, equipped with the latest machinery, have been set up on the virgin lands, and new, modern settlements have been built. This land, which lay neglected for centuries, has begun giving up its wealth to man.

Between 1949 and 1953 yearly grain purchases from these lands amounted to 9.9 million tons. After development yearly grain purchases between 1954 and 1964 reached 25.2 million tons. In 1964 these purchases stood at 37.5 million tons.

The area of the developed lands exceeds all the grain crop areas of Austria, Belgium, the Federal Republic of Germany, France, Italy, the Netherlands, Spain and Sweden taken together. However during the mass development of virgin and fallow lands numerous areas with light-structure soil subject to erosion were brought under the plough. These areas are no longer cultivated and a new scientifically grounded system of agriculture is being introduced

for the virgin-land area which is based on the geographical conditions prevailing in the zone. The virgin lands have good prospects for the future.

HOW IS LIVESTOCK BREEDING DEVELOPING?

Here is how it looks in figures.

	Head, in million			
	1940	1945	1950	1966
Cattle	54.8	47.6	70.8	97.1
Including:				
Cows	28.0	22.9	33.3	41.2
Pigs	27.6	10.6	48.7	58.0
Sheep and goats	91.7	70.0	139.2	141.0

The number of poultry in 1950 was 292.8 million and at the beginning of 1966, amounted to 490.5 million.

The overwhelming majority of cattle is in the collective- and state-farm herds; approximately 25 per cent of livestock are privately owned by collective farmers, industrial, professional and office workers. There is, however, more poultry in private hands (about 75 per cent).

Besides the numerical increase in the head of cattle at state and collective farms the pedigree stock of animal husbandry has been improved and the level of zootechnical and veterinary services has been raised. This has increased the productivity of farm animals. As compared with 1950 milk yields per cow have gone up by approximately 85 per cent and in 1966 made up more than 2,000 kilogrammes for collective and state farms.

HOW FAST IS THE OUTPUT OF MEAT AND DAIRY PRODUCTS GROWING?

Several years ago the USSR surpassed the United States in the total volume of milk and butter output, and in 1959 in per capita butter output.

Meat output is also growing, but not as quickly as we would like. In this field the Soviet Union is some way behind the United States.

The total volume of meat and dairy produce in the USSR is as follows:

	1940	1945	1960	1966
Meat (in slaughter weight, million tons)	4.7	2.6	8.7	10.8
Milk (million tons)	33.6	26.4	61.7	75.8
Butter (thousand tons)	366	248	848	1,157
Eggs (thousand million pieces)	12.2	4.9	27.4	31.0

WHAT CHANGES ARE THERE IN THE PRODUCTION OF VEGETABLES, POTATOES, FRUIT, GRAPES AND TEA?

The country's vegetable gardens, orchards and vineyards have expanded far north. Fruit and vegetables are now grown in rigorous Siberia. In Soviet times the area of fruit and berry plantations has increased from 655,000 hectares to 3,626,000 hectares, vineyards from 215,000 to 1,064,000 hectares, and tea plantations from 900 hectares to 71,100 hectares. The area under citrus plants has increased more than 100 times, i. e., from 160 hectares in 1913 to more than 16,000 hectares now.

The take-in of fruits and berries including grapes has gone up from 4.9 million tons in 1960 to 8.1 million tons in 1965.

The total potato crop for 1966 amounted to 87.2 million tons, the vegetable crop—to 17.2 million tons.

WHAT INDUSTRIAL CROPS ARE GROWN IN THE USSR?

There are more than 30 varieties of these, producing fibre, oil, sugar, dyes, tanning extracts, medicinal products. In 1966, the area under these crops amounted to 15,100,000 hectares.

The USSR holds first place in the world production of

sugar-beet. Its gross yield in 1966 amounted to 73,800 tons. That of sunflower—to 6,100 tons.

The climate of our cotton-growing region is more severe than encountered anywhere else. It is regarded as the world's most northerly cotton-growing area. In spite of this, the Soviet Union gets the world's highest cotton yield. An average of 24.3 metric centners of cotton were gathered per hectare in 1966, and that is almost double the cotton yield before the Revolution. In 1966, the country produced 6 million tons of seed cotton, which, after taking care of domestic needs, leaves a considerable amount for export.

WHAT WINES ARE MADE IN THE USSR?

We make a wide variety of wines: Soviet champagne and Armenian cognac, Ukrainian nalivekas (a type of brandy), Crimean muscat, dry wines of Georgia and Moldavia, the Cahors wine of Tajikistan, the Madeira of Uzbekistan, all kinds of liqueurs and apple cider. All in all, there are 465 different brands of grape wines, champagne and brandies. One hundred and twenty of these are vintage brands.

The USSR is a regular participant in international wine-tasting competitions which are sponsored chiefly by Yugoslavia and Hungary.

More than 20 countries usually take part in the competition. Among them are Austria, Bulgaria, France, Britain, Italy, Spain, the United States and others. The collections of wines offered for tasting often comprise more than 1,000 samples. Between 1955 and 1964 the Soviet Union took part in four competitions in Yugoslavia and in three competitions held in Hungary. Altogether Soviet wines, champagnes and cognacs have carried away 421 medals, among them 208 gold, 200 silver and 13 bronze.

The output of grape wine is 134,000,000 decalitres as against 19,700,000 decalitres in 1940. All wine is made by industrial methods. It is worth mentioning that before the Revolution almost all wine in the country was made by peasants or by primitive wineries. Nowadays, there are no statistics for wine made by the old methods. Besides grape wine, the country puts out several million decalitres of fruit-and-berry wine.

HOW IS THE MECHANISATION AND ELECTRIFICATION OF AGRICULTURE DEVELOPING?

It was only after the Revolution that the country set up an industry manufacturing tractors, combines and other modern agricultural machines. Then mechanisation of agriculture began.

An immense part in mechanising agriculture was played by the machine and tractor stations (MTS). They helped the collective farms, which at first had neither means for purchasing costly machines, nor people who could operate them, change over quickly from draught horses to tractors, from backward implements to modern machinery. When the collective farms grew strong and became economically self-sufficient, and the collective farmers acquired enough experience of large-scale farming, methods of providing the countryside with equipment changed. In 1958, the machine and tractor stations were reorganised into maintenance and repair stations and their machines sold to collective farms.

By the beginning of 1967 the Soviet agriculture numbered 1,700,000 tractors (3,200,000 in 15 h.p. units), 540,000 grain harvesting combines, and over a million lorries and tank-lorries.

The sum total of power employed in agriculture amounted by the beginning of 1966 to 236,600,000 h.p. The cultivation and harvesting of grain is almost fully mechanised: cultivation by 98 per cent, sowing operations by 97 per cent, harvesting operations by 90 per cent. The cultivation of other crops is mechanised by 60-98 per cent, depending on the type of operation involved.

Least mechanised is animal husbandry. At some farms it wavers between 10 per cent (cleaning of premises) and 95 per cent (shearing of sheep). This is explained by the fact that until recently the problem of complex mechanisation of animal husbandry had not been solved efficiently. Now mass production of the necessary machines and implements is being developed which will enable to mechanise all the most labour-consuming operations by 1970.

Despite the fact that the output of tractors had increased by more than twelve times by 1966 as against 1940 and amounted to 382,000 units, and the output of combines had increased within the same period by more than seven times

(92,000 units), the agriculture is still inadequately equipped with machines. Much is being done to accelerate the development of the farm implement industry.

In 1966-70 the farms will receive 1,790,000 tractors which is 60 per cent more than in the preceding period, 1,100,000 lorries as against 349,000 in the previous five-year period, 550,000 combines and other implements for the total sum of 10,700 million roubles.

The output of tractors in 1970 will double as against 1965 and amount to 625,000 units yearly; the output of combines will increase from 84,000 to 125,000 yearly.

Nearly 80 new plants and workshops will be built to this effect; they will cost the state more than 4,000 million roubles.

The Soyuzselkhostekhnika organisation will build some 200 new repair works and more than a thousand specialised workshops. The existing repair works and farm workshops will be remodelled.

The energy consumed by agricultural operations will double between 1966 and 1970. Labour productivity at state and collective farms will go up by 40-45 per cent.

The consumption of electricity by the rural economy will go up to 60,000-65,000 million kwh in 1970 which is thrice the 1965 level and 30 per cent higher than the amount of electricity consumed by the entire country in 1940. The share of electricity supplied to collective and state farms from the central power grids will amount to 80-90 per cent. By November 1967 all collective and state farms will be supplied with electricity. Mass consumption of electricity in everyday life and labour processes will radically improve the people's cultural level and living conditions.

WHAT IS THE AMOUNT OF FARM AND ANIMAL HUSBANDRY PRODUCE PURCHASED BY THE STATE?

The state buys the bulk of staple agricultural products from the collective and state farms. It purchases 100 per cent of the grain, seed cotton, sugar-beet and sunflower, 93 per cent of the vegetables, 82 per cent of the potatoes,

86 per cent of the meat and 96 per cent of the milk from the collective and state farms.

Gross agricultural produce has gone up (in comparable prices) from 30,400 million roubles in 1940 to 61,000 million roubles in 1966. This makes it possible to satisfy more fully the requirements of the population for foodstuffs and the processing industry for raw materials.

State procurements of farm products (in millions of tons):

Products mln. tons	1940	1945	1960	1966
Grains	36.4	20	46.7	74.9
Seed cotton	2.24	1.16	4.29	6
Sugar-beet	17.4	4.7	52.2	69.7
Sunflower	1.5	0.5	2.3	4.6
Potatoes	8.5	4.5	7.1	9.3
Vegetables	3.0	1.8	5.1	7.9
Fruits and berries	0.6	0.3	2.0	4.4
Cattle and poultry (in slaughter weight)	1.3	0.7	4.8	6.5
Milk and dairy products (in milk units)	6.5	2.9	26.3	40.1
Eggs (thsd. mln.)	2.7	1.1	6.5	11.6
Wool (thsd. tons)	120	67	358	380

A clear-cut picture showing the satisfaction of the people's requirements for farm produce is obtained by comparing the increase in population with the growth of gross agricultural output. By 1966 the USSR population increased 19 per cent as against 1940 while gross agricultural output went up by 81 per cent. In 1940 the yield of farm produce per capita in comparable prices amounted to 157 roubles, in 1965 it had increased to 238 roubles, or 52 per cent.

HOW IS LAND RECLAMATION DEVELOPED?

The area under irrigation is over 10 million hectares. 10.6 million hectares of land have been drained.

Extensive drainage work is carried on in regions with surplus moisture. These include a large part of the non-

black earth area of the Russian Federation, Byelorussia, Latvia, Lithuania, Estonia, Polesseye and the western regions of the Ukraine.

Irrigation and development of arid lands has been practised on a wide scale in the Central Asian Republics and in Kazakhstan. The Amu Darya with the Kara Kum Canal provides water for extensive crop areas, pasture lands and regions producing oil and gas.

In the lower Amu Darya new irrigation systems are under construction and rice-growing state farms are being established. A total of 1.5-2 million hectares of land will be reclaimed. In the Syr Darya basin hundreds of thousands of hectares of arid waste lands are brought to life.

The regulating of rivers and the building of large reservoirs is a characteristic feature of modern irrigation construction in the USSR. The Chardorin reservoir with a capacity of 5,700 million cubic metres on the Syr Darya, and the Toktogul reservoir with a capacity of 19,000 million cubic metres on its tributary the Naryn are under construction.

Big power stations in the Volga basin have contributed to the irrigation of arid lands.

The North Crimean Canal which is fed by the waters of the Kakhovka reservoir is one of the largest irrigational systems in the Ukraine. It will water 165,000 hectares. The water reservoirs on the Dnieper will irrigate more than 400,000 hectares of land. Huge irrigation works are carried on in the Transcaucasus.

Extensive land reclamation work will be carried out in 1966-70. Some 3,000,000 hectares of land will be irrigated, 6,000,000 hectares will be drained; 9,000,000 hectares of land will be improved and 28,000,000 hectares of acid lands will be limed.

Irrigation and land improvement in cotton-growing areas will raise cotton crops by 1970 by one million tons yearly.

By 1970 reclaimed lands will ensure an additional yield of 15.5 million tons of grain, fully satisfy the requirements of the population for rice, produce the bulk of all the vegetable crops and a significant part of forage and other crops.

This programme requires considerable financial investments and huge material and technical outlays. Between 1966 and 1970 more than 10,000 million roubles will be

allocated for this purpose. These measures will require 32,000 excavators, 28,000 bulldozers, 18,000 scrapers, 10,000 tractors, 80,000 motor vehicles and tens of thousands of other machines and building implements.

Within the ten-year period (1966-75) the area of irrigated lands will increase by seven or eight million hectares and that of drained lands by 15-16 million hectares. By 1975 the total area of reclaimed lands will be 37-38 million hectares.

HOW ARE SPECIALISTS IN AGRICULTURE TRAINED?

The USSR has more than 100 higher agricultural schools with a total of more than 340,000 students. There were nearly 35,000 graduates in this branch of learning in 1966.

Agricultural educational institutions give their students wide specialisation in the following fields: agronomy, veterinary science, mechanisation of agriculture, economics and organisation of agriculture, soil science and agricultural chemistry, fruit- and vegetable-growing and viticulture, electrification of rural economy and land reclamation.

Each of these fields has its own specialisation; for example, there are agronomists in selection and seed-growing, agronomists and specialists in land reclamation, etc.

Tuition is free of charge. All students are provided with stipends. Apart from the general system of enrolment, collective and state farms often send their best workers to higher schools in order to provide themselves with good specialists from their own personnel. The stipends of these students are paid by the farms.

More than one thousand Doctors of science and about 10 thousand Masters of science carry on research work in agricultural and veterinary problems.

Numerous specialists for the rural economy are trained at secondary technical schools. In the 1965-66 academic year they had 498,000 students with about 69,000 graduates.

There are nearly half a million specialists in agriculture with a secondary or higher education. Agricultural vocational schools train machine operators. They provide agriculture with 800,000 tractor drivers, combine operators and other specialists.

WHAT ARE THE PROSPECTS FOR AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT?

It is envisaged to increase the average annual volume of all agricultural produce between 1966 and 1970 by 25 per cent more than the preceding five-year period. Priority development will be given to grain production which is to increase by 30 per cent.

The average annual output of staple agricultural produce is to reach the following level:

Produce (mln. tons)	Average annual volume of output	
	1961—65	1966—70
Grain	130.2	167
Sugar-beet	59	80
Seed cotton	5	6
Potatoes	81.5	100
Meat	9.3	11
Milk	65	78
Eggs (thsd. mln.)	29	34

An important means of raising grain and other crop yields is the further intensification of production and the improvement of land cultivation. In the past output was increased by extending crop areas, but these possibilities have become limited. The reclaimed lands will make up for the cuts in arable land and grain crop areas in the virgin lands that are subject to erosion; or they will also make up for the lands that will be included in crop rotation system with fallow lands and lands sown to perennial grasses.

Thus, the chief means of increasing agricultural output is to raise crop yields.

The introduction of effective systems of land cultivation conforming to the zonal features, the implementation of extensive land reclamation measures, the all-round introduction of the best varieties of seed and more effective use of fertilisers and complex of means for crop protection will improve land cultivation and increase crop yields.

The further increase in animal produce will be achieved mainly by raising the productivity of cattle and poultry on the basis of strengthening the fodder base.

Besides making efficient use of natural meadows and pasture grounds headway will be made in the mixed-feed industry whose output will be doubled. In 1970 agriculture will be provided with 800,000-900,000 tons of fodder yeast; the output of grass meal will be raised to 2-2.5 million tons. Animal husbandry will be supplied more fully with fodder having high protein content, vitamins, antibiotics and feed mixtures that raise the efficiency of fodder.

To this effect 71,000 million roubles will be invested in agriculture between 1966 and 1970, including 41,000 million roubles provided by the state, which is double the amount invested in the preceding five-year period.

Within the same period agriculture will receive 700,000 more tractors than in the preceding period, 680,000 more lorries, 176,000 more grain combines and 4,000 million roubles more worth of farm implements.

Deliveries of mineral fertilisers to collective and state farms will be doubled. Aircraft will find wider application in agriculture. In 1970 chemical treatment of sown areas by means of aircraft will cover 115-120 million hectares, including 40 million hectares that will be fertilised from the air.

The consumption of electricity by the rural economy will triple. This will make it possible to mechanise all the labour-consuming operations in animal husbandry.

More extensive application of machines, intensification of agricultural production, better organisation of labour and higher material incentive will raise labour productivity on collective and state farms by 40-45 per cent.

This programme envisages a considerable rise in agricultural production which will lead to a fuller satisfaction of the Soviet people's requirements.

Transport and Communications

DO SOVIET PEOPLE LIKE TO TRAVEL?

Statistics answer this question. They show that every year more than 40 million people go on tours. In summer, winter or any other season of the year one can encounter tourists. There are over 5,000 tourist camps in the most beautiful spots of the country. Tourists may take their choice: they may hike, paddle by canoe, sail aboard comfortable ships, go by private car, by tourist bus or train. Soviet people travel abroad, too. In 1966 more than 1,000,000 Soviet tourists visited 106 foreign countries.

WHAT TYPES OF TRANSPORT ARE PREFERRED IN THE USSR?

The USSR is a country of vast distances, and during summer holidays aviation is naturally preferred to other means of transport. In some cases 60 to 80 per cent of all holiday-makers travel by air. That is in summer. On the average, however, the comfortable railway coach is gene-

rally preferred. Every year railways carry over 250 million long-distance passengers and 2,450 million with commuters.

Next comes the city-to-city motor coach which carries 1,500 million passengers. There are over 12,200 inter-city coach routes in the country.

River transport comes third with over 145,6 million passengers and air transport next with over 47,1 million passengers, while marine transport service accounts for 32,2 million yearly.

HOW IS ELECTRIFICATION OF THE RAILWAYS DEVELOPING?

The total length of electrified railway track equalled 1,900 km in 1940 and about 27,000 km. in 1966. Electric trains are now running from Moscow to Baikal on the Trans-Siberian railroad, which is about 5,500 km. long. Electrification on the line from Leningrad on the Gulf of Finland to Leninakan in the Caucasian Mountains, a distance of some 3,400 km, was completed in 1962. Soon afterwards, electric trains started running on the Trans-European trunk-line, 1,000 km. long, from Lvov to Prague via Chop. Each year more than two thousand kilometres of railway are electrified. By 1970 the length of electrified track will grow by 10,000 kilometres and steam locomotives will be generally replaced by electric and diesel engines.

In late 1966 electric and diesel traction was employed on 88,800 kilometres of railway, their share of the total freight traffic being 89 per cent.

The USSR ranks first in the world in the total length of electrified railways, and highly efficient alternating current traction.

HOW MUCH FREIGHT DO SOVIET RAILWAYS CARRY?

The freight traffic of the Soviet railways, 2,000,000 million ton/kilometres a year is nearly twice that of the United States, although the length of the American railways is 328,000 kilometres as against 131,400 kilometres in the Soviet Union.

In Soviet times the transport capacity of the railways has grown by 27 times, while their length has only doubled. This was made possible by the use of up-to-date technology, automation and the switch-over to electric and diesel traction. Although the length of Soviet railways is only one-tenth of the world's total, the Soviet railway transport carries nearly half of the world's freight traffic.

In 1966-70 the freight traffic of the Soviet railways will grow 23 per cent compared to 1965, and 7,000 km new lines will be built.

HOW LONG DOES IT TAKE TO TRAVEL FROM RIGA TO VLADIVOSTOK?

It depends on the type of transport, the distance being 10,229 km. It takes 186 hours by express train, not counting the time needed to change trains in Moscow. The TU-104 jet airliner, also with a changeover in Moscow covers the distance in 16 hours 10 minutes.

WHICH FARES ARE CHEAPER, TRAIN OR PLANE?

Train fares, as a rule. But on some short-distance lines, plane fares are cheaper. For instance, a first-class ticket in an upholstered carriage of the Kiev-Moscow express (856 km) costs 17 roubles 40 kopecks, in comparison with only 15 roubles by air, whereas, correspondingly, the fares from Moscow to Khabarovsk (8,553 km) are 89 roubles 50 kopecks and 108 roubles.

In general transport tariffs in the USSR are low compared to other countries. For instance, internal airline tickets cost 30-50 per cent less than in the United States.

WHICH ARE THE MAIN AIR ROUTES IN THE USSR?

It would have been easy to answer this question in 1923, when only one air route existed, from Moscow to Gorky, a flight of 420 km. Today it is difficult to enumerate all the existing lines. The overall length of airlines is about

500,000 km, including 100,000 international. The 400 main routes connecting the major cities of the country are serviced by nearly 1,400 daily flights.

The local routes have more flights. Their number is increasing. For instance, in the Ukraine there are 500 regular local routes, in Kazakhstan—400, in the Caucasus—350. Today there is practically no locality of any significance which is not serviced by an air route. In the summer 160,000—170,000 passengers are airborne every day, and on some days the number of airborne passengers soar to 200,000.

The passenger planes are now equipped with powerful engines. They fly faster and carry more passengers. The first Soviet air route carried 229 passengers during the first year of its existence. Today the giant Soviet TU-114 airliner can take that number of passengers and deliver them from Moscow to Gorky (420 km.) in 30 minutes. High-speed passenger jets and turboprops carry 80 per cent of the passengers. Air transport, owing to its safety, speed, comfort and low price of tickets, attracts an increasing number of passengers. In 1967 some 53 million people will avail themselves of the air transport services and over 1,5 mln cargo and mail will be handled. The Soviet passenger air service carries one out of every four air passengers of the world. In 1970 it will carry 75 million passengers.

WITH WHAT COUNTRIES DOES THE USSR HAVE DIRECT AIR LINKS?

The USSR has direct air links with more than 50 countries. By the middle of 1967 planes of *Aeroflot* (Soviet Civil Airlines) were making regular flights to the capitals of 41 countries of Europe, Asia, Africa and America. Among these cities are Algiers, Amsterdam, Baghdad, Berlin, Budapest, Bucharest, Brazzaville, Brussels, Belgrade, Beirut, Bomako, Warsaw, Vienna, Havana, Damascus, Delhi, Jakarta, Kabul, Cairo, Karachi, Colombo, Conakry, Copenhagen, London, Montreal, Nicosia, Peking, Paris, Prague, Pyongyang, Sofia, Stockholm, Ulan-Bator, Khartum, Helsinki, Rabat, Rangoon, Rome, Tokyo, Tunis, Teheran. Moscow-New York and Moscow—Lagos air routes will be opened.

WHAT PLANES ARE FLOWN BY THE SOVIET AIRLINES?

They vary from 6-12 seaters to giant airliners carrying up to 220 passengers.

Here are some of the Soviet passenger planes:

AN-14—«Pchelka» (Bee), a twin-engine 7-seater for local flights. It can take off and land on a ground strip, 60-80 metres long.

AN-24 is a twin-engine turboprop which can carry 50 passengers to an average distance of 1,100 kilometres at the cruising speed of 500 km./hour.

AN-10 is a 100-passenger four-engine turboprop. Its range is 7,000 kilometres and speed, 600 km./hour.

IL-18 is a four-engine turboprop liner for 120 passengers; its range is 6,500 kilometres and speed, 700 km./hour. *IL-18* is flown by international airlines of more than 15 countries.

TU-114 is a four-engine turboprop intercontinental liner capable of carrying 170 people (220 tourist class). It has a cruising speed of 800 km./hour and a range of 11,000 kilometres.

TU-104 is a twin-engine jet liner of medium range, carrying 70 passengers at 800-900 km./hour. In 1956 it was the world's first jet passenger plane; since then it has been flown by airlines of many countries.

TU-124 is a twin-engine aircraft of medium range, 44 passengers, speed up to 1,000 kilometres an hour.

In the next year or two the Soviet airlines will receive more modern aircraft. Among them are:

TU-134, a twin-engine jet liner, 70 passengers, average range 3,500 kilometres, speed 850-920 km./hour.

IL-62, a four-engine turbojet intercontinental liner for 186 passengers, speed 900 km./hour, range over 9,000 kilometres.

YAK-40, a three-engine jet plane for 24 passengers, designed for local airlines.

TU-154, a three-engine turbojet liner for 160 passengers, will replace the well-known *TU-104*, *IL-18* and *AN-10*. It will have a speed of 900 km./hour and a range of 7,000 kilometres.

The first Soviet supersonic passenger plane, *TU-144*, still in the blueprint stage, will be capable of carrying 120 passengers over 6,500 kilometres at 2,500 km./hour.

In 1966, the Soviet Union began mass production of *AN-22*, or «Antaeus», the world's biggest aircraft which can carry 80 tons of cargo or 720 passengers and fly for 5,000 kilometres. With a 45-ton load it can fly for 11,000 kilometres. Its speed is 740 km./hour.

The Soviet civil air fleet also has various helicopters, from the little «grasshopper»—*KA-26* to *MI-4* and *MI-6* and the «flying crane»—*B-10*, the world's biggest.

DOES THE SOVIET UNION SELL ITS PLANES AND HELICOPTERS?

It certainly does. The Soviet Foreign Trade Association, *Aviaexport*, has business contacts with more than 35 countries. In good demand are the planes *IL-18*, *TU-124*, *AN-24* and helicopters *MI-4* and *MI-6*.

Now *Aviaexport* offers its customers the latest models—planes *IL-62* and *TU-134*, passenger helicopters *B-8*, the «flying crane» *B-10* and other models.

HOW IS THE MERCHANT MARINE GROWING?

By the end of 1966 the Soviet merchant marine had a tonnage in excess of 8 million tons and held the sixth place in the world. Only six years ago the USSR merchant fleet was in the 11th place. While the world tonnage has grown by 89 per cent in the last 15 years (1950-65), that of the Soviet merchant marine has jumped 320 per cent. The orders for new ships made up to date suggest that the world fleet will grow by 20-25 per cent in 1966-70, while the Soviet merchant navy will show a 50 per cent increase. The annual growth of the Soviet marine tonnage will average about one million.

The Soviet merchant marine is probably the world's youngest, with 70 per cent of its ships built less than ten years ago. The share of new ships will steadily grow. Every week Soviet shipyards launch two large vessels, and many ships are being built to Soviet orders in foreign countries.

Marine shipments increase along with expanding foreign trade. By 1970 the goods turnover of the merchant marine will reach 380,000 million ton/miles compared to 208,800 million in 1965. By that time the shipping capacity of Soviet sea ports will grow by 40 per cent, with the level of mechanisation of cargo handling operations at 90 per cent—higher than in most ports of the world.

The Soviet marine policy is to meet the country's demands for home and foreign shipments with its own ships.

WHAT IS PASSENGER SERVICE LIKE?

One can order train and plane tickets by telephone. All long-distance express trains are made up of sleeping cars. Bedding is changed regularly in transcontinental trains. Every express has a dining car, and meals are also served in compartments on request. All cars have plug-in radio amplifiers. Some trains carry radio-telephone sets, making it possible for passengers to call home while travelling. Free meals are provided to passengers on long-distance flights.

WHAT IS DONE TO DEVELOP PIPELINE TRANSPORT?

In 1965 the total length of oil pipelines was 28,200 kilometres and of gas pipelines, 41,800 kilometres; they pumped 225,700,000 tons of oil and 103,300 million cubic metres of gas.

By 1970 about 12,000 kilometres of oil pipelines and 25,000 kilometres of gas pipelines will be built. The pipeline transportation of oil and oil products will nearly double.

WHAT PROGRESS HAS BEEN MADE IN MUNICIPAL TRANSPORT IN THE USSR?

Before the Revolution, 35 cities of the country had trams, the only form of municipal transport at that time. In 1966 trams were running in 110 cities. There is a trolley-

bus service in 80 cities, and motorbus service in 1,650 cities. There is a passenger-car and goods-van taxi service in most cities.

The first underground railway line (subway) was built in Moscow in 1935. Undergrounds also operate in Leningrad, Kiev and Tbilisi. Underground railways are under construction in Baku and Kharkov.

Every year trams carry about 9,000 million passengers; trolleybuses, over 5 million; the underground, about 2,000 million; and motorbuses, over 20,000 million.

WHY IS PREFERENCE GIVEN TO MUNICIPAL TRANSPORT IN THE USSR?

Municipal transport is preferred because it is cheap and efficient. The fares are: tram—3 kopecks, trolleybus—4 kopecks, motorbus and underground—5 kopecks (irrespective of distance in all these services), special-route taxi—10 kopecks (irrespective of distance) and ordinary taxi—10 kopecks per kilometre.

This is not the only consideration. All municipal transport is rapidly developing and becoming more convenient. Taxicabs are being used more extensively. For instance, there are ten thousand taxicabs in Moscow. It is also possible to hire a car for a day, week, month or a longer period.

The underground railway lines will add 85 kilometres during 1966-70, while tramway tracks will grow by 1,400 kilometres and trolleybus lines, by 2,900 kilometres. Rolling stock will grow by 1,200 underground coaches, 11,000 trolleybuses and 10,000 trams.

WHAT MEANS OF CONVEYANCE CAN BE PRIVATELY OWNED?

A motorcar, motorcycle, scooter, and a bicycle, of course, as well as a motorboat and other types of boats not involving hired help. All these conveyances are sold at state and cooperative shops. There is a great demand for them, especially motorcars.

HOW FAST IS A TELEGRAM DELIVERED?

An urgent telegram is delivered in 1 hour 50 minutes, and an ordinary one in less than three hours, from the moment it is accepted at a telegraph office. Every year about 300 million telegrams are delivered. The post office often phones the message to the addressee, thus saving time for both parties.

Phototelegrams are delivered in the same period of time. Snapshots and photo copies of documents and manuscripts can be transmitted to 150 different places in the country.

HOW HAS TELEPHONE SERVICE DEVELOPED?

Some 285 million long-distance calls were registered in 1966. The number of private telephones will nearly double by 1970. Much attention will be given to cable and relay communication lines, automation and semi-automation.

The world's longest land cable line Moscow-Vladivostok, over 9,300 kilometres long and Europe's longest cable line Moscow-Tashkent, which is 3,700 kilometres long and enables people in Central Asia to watch the programmes of Moscow Television, were commissioned in 1965. In 1970, the length of cable lines will grow by 80 per cent and of relay lines by 130 per cent compared to 1965. One modern relay line handles over 3,000 long-distance telephone calls at one time, while a coaxial cable can handle 1,900 calls. Videotelephone is being introduced. The Soviet Union maintains telephone and radiotelephone communication with almost one hundred countries.

ARE THERE RADIO HAMS IN THE USSR?

Their number exceeds 10,000. They continue to broaden contacts with their counterparts in practically all countries of the world. Each day sees thousands of call cards sent off to new friends abroad. Some 3 million meetings in the air take place every year between Soviet short-wave and ultra-short-wave hams and their foreign colleagues.

WHAT IS SACS?

The Soviet Union is developing a single automatic communication system (SACS) which will unite the networks of urban, rural, intraregional and long-distance communication. SACS will link all telegraph offices in the country into one automatic telegraph network. It will also extend the television network. By the end of 1970 three hundred television centres will be added to the existing 186 centres and relay stations. They will carry TV programmes to almost every region of the country. Communication satellites will bring the programmes of Moscow Television to the remotest corners of the Soviet Union.

The single automatic communication system will ensure prompt transmission of all kinds of information between subscribers all over the country. The groundwork for this system will be laid by 1970.

Finance

WHAT ARE THE MONEY DENOMINATIONS IN THE USSR?

Money in circulation in the USSR consists of bank notes, treasury notes and coins. Bank notes come in denominations of 10, 25, 50 and 100 roubles, treasury notes in denominations of 1, 3 and 5 roubles, and coins in denominations of 1, 2, 3, 5, 10, 15, 20 and 50 kopecks, and 1 rouble.

HOW IS THE USSR BUDGET DRAWN UP?

The basic guide for drawing up the budget is the state economic plan which defines the direction of development of all branches of national economy, and also the measures for raising living standards.

Those responsible for the draft budget are the ministries and departments of both the USSR as a whole and of the Union Republics. They draw up their financial plans and estimates, which are then coordinated in the draft budget of the USSR or of the Union Republics, depending under whose authority the particular enterprises are.

The USSR Ministry of Finance then draws up an overall budget based on the draft budgets of the USSR and the Union Republics. This budget goes to the USSR Council of Ministers. After consideration there, it is submitted to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, where it is initially examined by the Budget Commissions of the Soviet of the Union and of the Soviet of Nationalities. The Commissions closely scrutinise the budget, checking each item of revenue and expenditure, calling in a great number of economists for advice. The Commissions then present their reports to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

In the budget debate, deputies thoroughly examine it and, where necessary, suggest changes and amendments. After that the budget is passed by the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

The fiscal year coincides with the calendar year (January 1st-December 31st).

WHAT ARE THE SOURCES OF REVENUE?

The main source of revenue for the budget is the accumulations of industrial, agricultural, transport, trading and other enterprises, accounting for more than 90 per cent of all budgetary revenue. That is quite natural, as mills and factories, power stations, railways, state farms, construction developments and so on, belong to the state, that is to society as a whole. Of the 110,249,925,000 roubles revenue in the 1967 budget, 100,366,460,000 roubles came from state and cooperative enterprises. The payments from collective farms and other cooperative organisations do not exceed three per cent of the budget revenues.

WHAT ARE THE PRINCIPAL BUDGET EXPENDITURE ITEMS?

Budget funds mainly go for economic development and for raising the standard of living. Let us take, for example, the 1967 budget. Of the total 110,015,201,000 roubles on the expenditure side, the sum of 46,917,070,000 roubles was earmarked for financing heavy industry, construction, the light and food industries, agriculture, transport, hous-

ing and utilities. A good part of these funds was allocated for capital investment.

The sum of 42,918,267,000 roubles was assigned for education, research institutions, libraries, the press, radio, TV, clubs, theatres and other cultural facilities, hospitals, nurseries, sanatoriums and other health services, physical culture, pensions, benefits and allowances.

Thus, the allocations for development of the national economy, on the one hand, and public welfare and culture, on the other, were 89,835,337,000 roubles, more than three-quarters of the total expenditure. In 1970 the sum will increase 1.5-fold. It should be pointed out that in addition to state budgetary outlays for the development of public welfare and culture, considerable sums are allocated by state, cooperative, trade union and other public organisations and enterprises, and collective farms. In 1967 these allocations amounted to over 5,000 million roubles.

In 1967, the sum of 14,500,000,000 roubles (about 13 per cent of the budget) was allocated for defence. The costs of state administration, the courts and the procurator's office come to 1,434,938,000 roubles.

DO BUDGET DEFICITS EVER OCCUR?

Based on planned socialist economy, the budget is made up so as to rule out a deficit and, in fact, there is always a surplus. In 1966, for instance, the year ended with a surplus of 141.4 million roubles, and in 1967, 234.7 million roubles. The regular credit balance testifies to the soundness and stability of the budget, and is the result of the constantly growing accumulation. The surpluses add to the resources of the USSR State Bank, which furnishes credit to the national economy.

WHAT IS A UNION REPUBLIC'S BUDGET LIKE?

Each Republic has its own budget for financing its economic and cultural development. The budgets of Union Republics comprise approximately 50 per cent of the USSR budget. In 1967 they are envisaged to stand at 52,800 million roubles.

The bulk of budget revenue is made up of receipts from the various enterprises operating in the Republic. For the purpose of promoting the Republic's economic development and the well-being of its population, substantial sums of money from the all-Union revenue fund are assigned to the Republican budgets. These allocations make up 30-100 per cent of all the national revenues and Republican tax revenues. Moreover, some Republics receive extra funds from the all-Union revenue fund for financing big construction projects or the accelerated development of industries of all-Union importance. In 1967, for example, the budget of the Kazakh Republic was allotted from all-Union funds 892,889,000 roubles over and above the assignments from the all-Union budget, the budget of the Turkmen Republic 83,144,000 roubles, and the budget of the Uzbek Republic—254,522,000 roubles.

WHAT ENSURES THE STABILITY OF THE ROUBLE?

It is generally believed that a state's gold reserve is the most reliable security for any currency. That, of course, is the case where gold is the most valuable resource possessed by the state. But there is more substantial wealth, namely, the mills, factories, stations and mines, and everything that is produced in them. All that is the property of the people. That is why the immense quantities of goods sold at stable prices become a reliable guarantee of the currency.

Because of its value on the world market, gold does play some, but not the major, part in ensuring the stability of the rouble.

WHAT FUNCTIONS DO THE BANKS PERFORM?

There are no private bankers in the USSR, as banking is a state monopoly. The banks belong to the people and serve them. The chief functions of the banks are to grant economic enterprises short-term credits; finance long-term capital investments; gather up free funds and cash resources; clear accounts between organisations and handle their cash requirement; receive and pay out money for the State

Budget account; arrange and settle international accounts; exercise supervision over the proper use of bank loan funds or funds granted for financing purposes, and to exercise control over enterprises' financial operations.

There are three types of banks: the State Bank, the Bank for Financing Capital Investment (*STROIBANK*), and the Bank for Foreign Trade.

The State Bank is the country's only settlement and cash centre, regulating money in circulation. It handles all operations connected with short-term credits, with the financing of state farms' capital investments and collective farms' long-term credits. The Bank for Financing Capital Investment grants long-term credits for capital investment in industry, trade, housing and utilities, and transport. The Bank for Foreign Trade handles transactions connected with financing foreign trade and international settlements.

The chartered fund of the State Bank of the USSR comprises 1,500 million roubles. Its clients make up more than a million organisations which have more than four million accounts. The annual volume of credit allocations constitutes thousands of millions of roubles.

WHAT OPERATIONS ARE HANDLED BY SAVINGS-BANKS?

Savings-banks are widely used in the USSR. In the first place, savings-accounts yield depositors interest and in the second place, deposits are one of the sources used by the state for supplying the State Bank with financial resources. This helps the country's further economic development, in which the depositors are naturally interested. In 1966, the total sum of accounts in savings-banks amounted to 22,900 million roubles.

Savings-banks have various types of accounts: current, time, conditional and lottery accounts. The most common are current accounts, which the depositor may draw against or draw out in full at any time on demand. These accounts have an interest rate of 2 per cent per annum.

Time accounts are deposits for a specific period, but not less than six months, and conditional accounts last until the condition stipulated comes to fruition. In the latter case an account may be opened by parents in the

name of a child, stipulating that the money be paid when the child has come of age. These two types of accounts draw an annual interest rate of 3 per cent. Lottery accounts yield winnings.

In addition to individual savings-accounts, savings-banks have current accounts for certain organisations such as rural Soviets and organisations financed from rural budgets, collective farms, factory and local trade union committees, mutual assistance societies, and other local public organisations.

Savings-banks also issue letters of credit, pay rent bills and other municipal service bills on written instructions from depositors and handle other operations.

WHAT IS THE RATE OF EXCHANGE FOR THE ROUBLE?

The complicated and painstaking job of making up rate of exchange bulletins is done by the USSR State Bank, and the tables are published periodically in *Izvestia*, the official newspaper of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR. In 1967 the State Bank is paying 90 kopecks for one US dollar and 2 roubles 51 kopecks for one pound sterling.

WHAT ARE THE LEGAL REGULATIONS GOVERNING FOREIGN EXCHANGE OPERATIONS?

Legislation governing foreign exchange operation is based on the state monopoly of currency, covering transactions in foreign currency and payment documents made out in foreign currency (bills of exchange, checks, remittances, and so on); transactions in precious metals (gold, platinum, etc., in coin, bullion, or in their natural state) and other valuables. Foreign exchange in the hands of the state ensures a more rational use of foreign currency, the strengthening of the internal monetary system and its protection against the ups and downs in the world market and speculation in foreign exchange.

Transactions in foreign currency and other valuables is a monopoly right of the USSR State Bank, although the

Bank for Foreign Trade may also handle such transactions on behalf of the State Bank. Control over currency transactions is exercised by the USSR Ministry of Finance, which regulates foreign exchange operations.

Violation of foreign exchange legislation is punishable according to the Criminal and Customs Codes.

Trade

HOW IS TRADE ORGANISED?

Soviet trade is no hit-or-miss affair, but is based on carefully elaborated plans which are designed to satisfy popular demands ever more fully and steadily. By the beginning of 1966 the number of shops and other trade establishments (including canteens and restaurants) topped the 836,000 mark. They are served by 1,300 specialised wholesale depots, all of which operate on a self-paying basis. Overhead is covered by receipts.

Large trade establishments have the necessary assets and turnover funds, and open accounts in the State Bank and conduct their own economic and financial operations. The USSR Council of Ministers sets the general policy in trade and the Ministry of Trade carries out the executive functions.

WHAT FORMS OF TRADE ARE THERE?

State, cooperative and collective-farm.

Almost 68.1 per cent of the total retail trade turnover in 1965 was handled by state enterprises, which mainly serve

the urban population. These include department stores, specialised shops, street stalls, cafes, restaurants, public canteens and lunch counters.

Cooperative trade is run by consumer coops, whose material and financial assets belong to their shareholders. They supply the rural population with manufactured goods and food products and buy farm produce. Their share of the country's retail trade turnover amounts to 28.5 per cent.

Both these forms of trade necessitate an organised market. Prices, trade turnover and circulation costs are all planned.

On the collective-farm market prices are not set by the state. They depend on supply and demand. Though the role of the market in overall trade is slight, it is popular among the urban population. The collective farms and their members sell their superfluous stocks of farm products at this market. Cities reserve special sites for the markets and equip them with large pavilions, kiosks and also hostels for the farmers.

Total number of personnel engaged in trade amounts to about 4.5 million people, including 500,000 graduates from the higher schools of commerce and from trade schools and colleges.

HOW ARE PRICES SET?

Prices are based on average cost of producing and turning over the article. The price also includes the net profit on the item.

There are the following categories of prices: wholesale prices for industrial goods, purchase and delivery prices for farm products and retail prices.

Wholesale prices are those that are fixed by the enterprise for turning over their produce to a wholesale marketing organisation or other enterprises. These prices are uniform for the whole country. Purchase prices are set for farm produce sold by collective farms or farmers to the state and to cooperative organisations; delivery prices—for produce of state agricultural enterprises delivered to the state. Purchase and delivery prices vary according to territorial belts. State retail prices are the prices established for goods sold to the population by state and cooperative trade organisations.

In the USSR manufactured items are usually sold at cost price. Sometimes, however, the prices of certain articles are higher than cost. Thus, some manufactured items are sold at cost price, while others (such as toys and medicines) are sold below cost. In the latter case the factory covers its production costs through state subsidies. Some articles are sold at low prices because the state seeks to make the most effective use of raw materials and reduce household chores. For instance, the price of ready-made clothes is relatively cheaper than the cost of the fabric.

However, luxury articles (furs, jewelry, some articles of cosmetics) or items whose consumption it is desirable to restrict (liquor, tobacco) are usually priced higher than cost.

The prices on key goods are set by the USSR State Planning Committee and, on the rest, by the Governments of the Union Republics. As a rule, the prices on manufactured articles are uniform for the whole country. But those on most foods vary according to climatic belts, the difference, however, does not exceed 10-25 per cent. There are also some seasonal prices for farm products. When potatoes, vegetables, fruits and melons are in season, when there are big supplies of those items, they are sold at lower retail prices. In the winter, quite naturally, they cost more, for it is necessary to cover storage expenses.

Fixed prices for commodities are a guarantee of stability in the purchasing power of money. This also enables enterprises to plan the cost of manufactured articles, the profitability of the enterprise and to realise cost accounting on a full scale.

Prices are set by the state on a planned basis; as production is expanded and costs are cut, prices are brought down.

HOW ARE COLLECTIVE-FARM MARKET PRICES SET?

They are governed by the law of supply and demand. The collective farms and their members sell surplus stocks on the markets: meat, milk, eggs, potatoes, vegetables, fruit, etc. As distinct from state and cooperative trade where fixed prices exist, goods are sold on the collective-farm markets by mutual agreement of the people involved.

However, the level of market prices too is influenced by the state. After all, the dominant share of total farm produce is sold to the population by state and cooperative shops. And no matter how good a bargainer a farmer may be, he will not be able to get for his goods three times the price they cost in a shop.

With the expansion of state and cooperative trade, the collective farm market's share of the country's trade turnover is falling. Thus, in 1952 it was about 12 per cent, in 1963 it was 3.8 per cent and in 1965—3.4 per cent of the country's retail trade turnover.

WHAT IS THE RETAIL PRICE TREND?

Repeatedly the prices have been cut on watches, cameras, medicines and other articles.

The 1965 retail price index (with the exception of alcohol) on all goods was 75 per cent as compared with 1950.

In April 1965 prices were considerably cut for textiles, clothes and certain other commodities. The public benefited by a huge sum—1,124 million roubles in a single year. Besides, at the end of 1964 and the beginning of 1965 goods totalling 958 million roubles were sold at reduced prices.

Systematic reduction of prices will be continued.

Price-cutting, however, is not the only or the main way of raising living standards. What the public gains here is approximately proportional to their income, which means that those who have higher incomes stand to gain more by it. That is why the state employs other means, too: direct pay increases for workers in the lower income brackets, expansion of public consumption funds, and the reduction and abolition of taxes.

WHY WERE WHOLESALE PRICES CHANGED?

The economic reform—the changeover to a new system of planning and stimulating industrial production—calls for the introduction of a whole complex of preparatory measures. One of these is the revision of wholesale prices for manufactured articles.

Most of the wholesale prices in force were established in 1955 and since then have become obsolete. They do not

reflect the changes that have taken place within this period in the technical level of production or in the cost of production. New wholesale prices will fundamentally differ from old ones.

First of all, in fixing these prices profitability is determined as a percentage of productive capital and not cost prices; secondly, they conform to a greater extent to socially necessary labour expenditure and are established with due consideration for the average cost of production; thirdly, they greatly diminish the difference in the level of profitability in regard to various industries and categories of manufactured articles; fourthly, new prices envisage greater incentive in improving the quality of production. In this respect a great role is attributed to the system of extra pay for good-quality produce and wage cuts for inferior produce.

New wholesale prices have been introduced as of October 1, 1966 for the textile and knitwear industries, and as of January 1, 1967 for the light and food industries. By July 1, 1967 new wholesale prices will be introduced in all the industries.

On the whole the level of wholesale prices will be higher, particularly for those industries which do not receive compensation for production costs (coal, mining, metal and other industries). They will be somewhat lower for the engineering industry as well as for industries manufacturing plastics, synthetic fibres, products of organic chemistry, silk and knitwear and other goods.

The point is that no matter how great may be the changes in wholesale prices they will have no effect on retail prices for commodity goods, or on the incomes of collective farms. This puts a definite limit on wholesale prices for commodity goods, corresponding raw materials, farm implements and other manufactured articles for the rural economy. Retail prices will not go up but will steadily be reduced as envisaged by the decisions of the 23rd Congress of the CPSU.

IS CONSUMER DEMAND STUDIED?

The main role here is played by the research institutes, shops and wholesale depots. They arrange conferences with their customers at which the questions of increasing the

variety and improving the quality of goods are discussed. Exhibitions of new articles and exhibitions with sales are arranged. Research to elaborate rational consumption norms and indices showing the sale and reserves of various kinds of goods in different seasons is also done.

Besides the trade organisations, study of consumer demand is also made by enterprises, which arrange exhibitions of its products; public displays of new fashions and samples of clothes, footwear and other items, and also large-scale fairs. Factories also establish direct contact with the consumers by setting up company shops which can directly influence production.

This practice is being steadily extended and conforms to the demands of the economic reform now under way. Direct orders of trade organisations are becoming the basis for planning the volume and determining the items and assortment of production. More attention is devoted to cost accounting and experiments are undertaken to reorganise planning and appraise the work of trade organisations on the basis of two indices: trade turnover and profits. This provides scope for initiative, and enables them to make fuller use of their potentialities for developing and improving trade.

DOES DEMAND HAVE AN EFFECT ON SUPPLY IN THE USSR?

Unquestionably. As living standards rise the people have more opportunity to acquire good-quality items. Food sales in 1966 rose more than 3.9-fold in comparative prices, as against the 1940 level, and manufactured goods, 6.2 times; the sale of meat increased 7.4-fold, butter 5-fold, milk and dairy products 9.2-fold, sugar 2.6-fold, silk fabrics 12-fold, leather footwear 5.6-fold, knitwear 10-fold, furniture 13-fold, and radio sets 32-fold. Consumption is thoroughly studied to determine the pattern and trends of demand. Following this research the trade establishments and organisations place orders with industry for the manufacture of corresponding goods.

The Soviet market is an avid consumer: the people's incomes grow quicker than trade turnover. However, as the market is flooded with goods, the USSR is also faced

with the problem of their realisation. That is why the task is to fully balance trade resources with the people's purchasing power, to improve quality and assortment.

HOW IS TRADE TURNOVER PLANNED?

What is primarily taken into account is effective demand—the population's cash income designated for buying goods. At the same time, the volume of the retail trade turnover is based on existing consumer goods stocks and their production volume.

Drawing up the plan starts in the shop, with the broad participation of sales clerks, buyers and trade personnel. The draft plans of various shops are clarified and coordinated in the trade organisations of the district, region or territory. They are then brought together into a single plan for the given Republic. On this basis the Ministry of Trade draws up a single, all-embracing plan for the country's retail trade and presents it for the approval of the USSR Government.

After the trade turnover plans are approved they are passed on to each trade organisation and shop as obligatory orders. This obligation is backed by the fact that the pay of trade workers depends to a certain extent on the plan fulfilment.

In June 1964, the Supreme Soviet of the USSR passed a law raising the wages of workers directly engaged in the service trades. In 1965, an average wage increase for the workers of trade was 15 per cent.

The volume of retail trade turnover in 1966 stood at 112,900 million roubles which is 6,3-fold increase as against 1940.

It is envisaged (in 1966-70) to increase the sale of commodities to the population: meat—by 21 per cent, milk and dairy products—by 37 per cent, sugar—by 22 per cent, textiles, clothes, knitwear—by 38 per cent, footwear—by 26 per cent, etc.

The sale of durable consumer goods will increase at a greater rate.

On the whole state and cooperative retail trade turnover will increase by 45,000 million roubles, i. e., by approximately 43.5 per cent.

	Sold in 1961—65	To be sold in 1966—70
Refrigerators (million units)	4.7	18.5
Washing machines (million units)	10.9	19.0
Radio sets and radiogramophones (million units)	21.5	30.0
TV sets (million units)	12	27.0
Furniture (thousand million roubles)	8.0	11.6

ARE THERE SPECIALISED SHOPS?

Specialisation in trade is, of course, a progressive thing. It presumes a broad selection of goods and skilled service. Quite naturally, this form of trade is well developed. There are shops that sell only a single line of goods: furniture, shoes, fabrics, meat, fish, etc. But there are also shops with even narrower specialisation, such as, for instance, selling only women's hats, or men's shoes, children's clothes or cut-glass items.

The specialised shops in the state trade system constitute about 75 per cent of those selling manufactured goods and over 45 per cent of the food shops.

If someone has to buy several different things he can go to a department store, where he can find a wide variety of goods.

Specialisation follows two trends: with regard to the sale of commodity goods there is a trend to specialised shops; when it comes to the sale of foodstuffs preference is given to shops selling the broadest variety of foods.

ARE THERE SELF-SERVICE SHOPS?

They are very popular in state and cooperative trade. Customers can inspect the goods and select what they want.

There are also shops where you can ask for certain items according to the numbers on the samples displayed, or order the goods and food you want.

ARE THERE ANY SHOPS ACCEPTING FOREIGN CURRENCY?

There are special shops and stands accepting foreign currency for guests or tourists coming to the Soviet Union and wishing to spend their own currency. They are to be found at airports and hotels where foreign guests usually stay.

ARE THERE ANY VENDING MACHINES?

There are over 55,000 vending machines in the Soviet Union, which sell cold drinks, newspapers, notebooks, pencils, cigarettes, haberdashery items, perfume and other goods. They may be found in shops, on the streets, in factories and offices.

A special shop completely fitted out with automatic machines for selling 60 different dairy produce items was opened in Moscow in 1962. This shop has no sales assistants and serves more than 2,000 customers a day. Machines receive money and dispense the goods. Other machines change money if necessary. Automation of trade in the USSR is considered to have big future.

CAN ANYTHING BE BOUGHT ON CREDIT?

Yes, but only durable manufactured goods: textiles, clothes, furniture, TV and radio sets, motor scooters, motorcycles, cameras, watches, etc. Prices on these items are the same as in ordinary retail trade for cash purchase, plus a very small fee for the services of the trade organisation. The term of credit is one year.

The down payment is 20-25 per cent of the price of the article, the remainder being paid in equal instalments.

If someone falls behind with payments, the goods are not taken away. The customer is given a chance to pay up in the remaining time.

HOW IS TRADE DEVELOPING IN THE COUNTRYSIDE?

From 1959 to 1965, 67,000 new shops, cafes, restaurants were opened in the rural areas. About 70,000 trade establishments were reconstructed. In large villages trade centres with food and manufactured goods shops, public canteens and different kinds of repair shops and service establishments are being built.

Though there are still few department stores in the countryside, trade in the rural areas is beginning to resemble that of the city to an ever greater extent.

In 1965 rural dwellers bought 755,000 sewing machines, 230,000 refrigerators, 17,000 motorcars, 8,400,000 bicycles, etc.

Between 1966 and 1970 36,000 new shops, 5,000 new restaurants and canteens catering to 250,000 persons, will be opened in the country, more than 35,000 shops will be reconstructed.

WHAT IS A CONSUMERS' CO-OP?

This is a public economic organisation functioning in the countryside. It embraces 54 million shareholders, mostly collective farmers. Open to all rural inhabitants, it is run by elected bodies of the shareholders themselves. At ground level is the consumer society, then comes the cooperative union (district, regional, territorial, or Republican). The supreme body is the Congress of Authorised Delegates, which elects the Council of the Central Alliance of Consumer Cooperatives of the USSR—the *Tsentrosoyuz*. The shareholders receive about 20 per cent of the cooperatives' profits (which is added to the value of their shares), and are also granted some privileges in acquiring goods and using their services.

According to the Consumer Cooperative Charter, the percentage added to members' shares is established at the shareholders' general meeting.

Cooperatives have more than 350,000 shops, 60,000 canteens, cafes and restaurants, 17,000 bakeries, etc. There is also a co-op food industry that manufactures tinned foods, juices, confectionery, cooked meats and other products.

The Soviet consumers' co-op maintains commercial ties with cooperative organisations of over 60 countries and trades with 31 of these countries. It has been a member of the International Cooperative Alliance since 1921; between 1957 and 1965 its foreign trade turnover increased more than fivefold.

ARE THERE CLEARANCE SALES?

The biggest sales are usually arranged twice a year: in the spring and in the autumn. The goods on sale are usually those which are of outmoded fashions and models (sold at reduced prices anywhere from 5 to 75 per cent below the original price). The trading establishment may cover its losses from its overall profits. Sometimes the price cuts are made at the expense of the state budget.

HOW IS THE QUALITY OF GOODS GUARANTEED?

More than 5,000 standards exist covering the most diverse articles, from baby's nipples to blooming mills. For this purpose specifications in which the demand for quality also holds an important place, are established. The state standards and specifications are called «the guard of quality»: all the qualitative and technical indices of the articles, as well as the description of possible defects, are listed there in detail. Anyone responsible for producing substandard goods is severely punished.

A guarantee is given with many durables, such as TV sets and refrigerators.

To raise the quality of commodities is an important feature of the economic reform now under way in the USSR.

For this purpose a system of state recommendations for top-quality goods is being introduced. Goods recommended for mass production are marked with a «quality sign» established by the Committee on Standards, Measures and Measuring Apparatus under the Council of Ministers of the USSR. The «quality sign» is conferred on enterprises for a term of one-three years by State Recommendation Committee. Goods submitted for consideration must conform to a num-

ber of requirements: they must fully correspond to state standards and contemporary world standards with regard to exploitation and consumption, durability, technology, aesthetic qualities, standardisation and unification; they must satisfy the requirements of the economy and the population and be economically profitable to the consumers...

To increase the incentive of enterprises in improving quality, special raises are made in wholesale prices for recommended goods. These raises cover the additional expenses involved in the process of improving the quality of the manufactured article, and increase profitability. Half of the additional profits coming from the sale of recommended goods is earmarked for productive capital and used for paying bonuses to workers making these goods.

HOW IS PUBLIC CATERING DEVELOPING?

There are about 200,000 catering establishments in the USSR. Tens of millions of people regularly take advantage of the services offered by public canteens, restaurants, cafes, tearooms, lunch counters and buffets. Public canteens have been developed at factories, collective and state farms, schools and colleges. They are distinguished for their home-made dishes and lower prices than in the general public canteens or restaurants, because overhead, like rent, maintenance of premises, heating, electricity and certain other expenses is footed by the factory or institution.

Dietary canteens and cafes cater to those who need special food. Free food is supplied in hospitals, and at lower prices in rest homes and sanatoriums, schools, kindergartens, nurseries and boarding schools.

From 1966 to 1970, the volume of public catering will increase 45 per cent. Since most people consider public catering a good thing, the state intends to reduce the prices here more rapidly than on food elsewhere.

WHAT IS RUSSIAN FOOD LIKE?

Russian cuisine is known for its plain and wholesome food. The Russian people enjoy good eating and treating a

guest to tasty dishes. Russians like a large variety of meat and fish dishes, vegetables and cereals, specially prepared cakes, pies with filling and pancakes served with sour cream and caviar. The favourite soups are *shchi*, or Russian cabbage soup, *borshch* made of spiced vegetables and meat, mixed vegetable and fish soups. Among the purely Russian dishes there is *okroshka*—a cold refreshing summer soup made of the Russian national drink *kvas* with raw vegetables, chopped cooked meat and eggs. On festive occasions roast goose or duck stuffed with apples is served. The Russians like salted or pickled vegetables, apples and water melons, mushrooms prepared in different ways. The most common sweet dishes are light fruit jellies, compotes (stewed fruit), jams and mousses. Favourite beverages are *kvas*—refreshing summer cider made of malt, rye bread, sugar and raisins, and alcoholic drinks, notably various brands of vodka.

In addition to white bread, rye bread is also invariably served.

HAVE THE PEOPLES OF THE USSR THEIR OWN NATIONAL DISHES?

In the Ukraine you can sample home-made sausage with garlic and *galushki*—cottage cheese dumplings served with sour cream; in the Caucasus, lamb *shashlyk* and *chebureki*—meat pies cooked in boiling oil or fat; and in Central Asia, *beshbarmak*—a thick spicy meat, and pilaf. The favourite national dishes are served in almost any restaurant, cafe or canteen.

ARE THERE ANY RESTAURANTS SPECIALISING IN FOREIGN DISHES?

Yes, there are such restaurants in Moscow, Leningrad, Kiev and other large cities. You can enjoy Chinese, Bulgarian, Czech, Slovak, Rumanian, Hungarian, German, Polish and other foods. The dishes in these restaurants are

prepared under the guidance of experienced chefs invited to the USSR, and by Soviet cooks who have studied the culinary art abroad. Every large restaurant always has French, English, Italian and other national dishes, as well as Eastern dishes.

Labour

IS THERE ANY EXPLOITATION OF HIRED LABOUR IN THE SOVIET UNION?

As private ownership of the means of production does not exist in the USSR, there can be no exploitation of hired labour. All factories, mines, railways, in fact all the country's wealth, belong to the people.

Enterprises net a profit, part of which is distributed among employees, and the remainder spent on expansion of production and public welfare—education, health, social security, etc.

Profit under public ownership of the means of production duffers from profit under capitalism.

The sources of profit of a Soviet enterprise are saving of raw materials, fuel and other supplies, better use of equipment, increased production, higher labour productivity through the use of up-to-date equipment, automation, better production techniques and organisation of work. This is profit received from production. Socialist society does not know profit obtained through any form of exploiting hired labour.

WHAT ABOUT UNEMPLOYMENT?

We have none. The Soviet Constitution has it down in black and white that every citizen has the right to work. People avail themselves of this right. There is no basis for unemployment, since the economy progresses rapidly, according to a state plan, with no crises or depressions. Wherever you go in the Soviet Union you see plenty of «Help Wanted» notices. Jobs are advertised in the papers, over the radio and on notice-boards. Anyone seeking work may turn directly to the Executive Committee of the local Soviet which always has precise information as to which enterprises require help. Finally, every town and region has a type of Labour Exchange which can provide jobs in various parts of the country. Anyone going to work in another area receives, as a rule, an allowance: a grant based on monthly wages, travelling expenses (including a daily allowance and free transport of baggage) and money for six days.

As economic development is planned, it is possible to foresee manpower needs some time ahead and therefore distribute labour over the country in a rational way.

Upon graduation from specialised secondary schools, higher educational institutions and vocational schools specialists are offered jobs on a planned basis. Of course, it is impossible to plan for every contingency, when, say, for some reason or other, a worker may wish to go from one job to another. Every citizen enjoys this right which is inalienable. In practice the Soviet citizen has no trouble at all in finding employment.

HOW LONG IS THE WORKING WEEK?

In 1960 the Soviet Union has gone over to the 7-hour day and for some categories of workers to 4- or 6-hour working day without pay cuts. Today, the average working week is 39.4 hours. For those working underground, in arduous or harmful working conditions, the working week is 36 hours.

According to the decisions of the 23rd Congress of the CPSU the Soviet Government will gradually transfer all factory and office workers to a five-day working week with

two days off by November 1967, without changing the duration of the working time. By that time about 66 million people engaged in state, cooperative and public enterprises and organisations will be working according to the new schedule. The fact that out of 365 days 104 become «days off» facilitates working conditions, offers much greater opportunities for studying or improving one's qualification, helps organise rest and recreation better, promotes efficiency of production.

HOW DOES THE SOCIALIST PRINCIPLE OF PAYMENT ACCORDING TO LABOUR WORK OUT?

Every worker, who is employed according to his or her ability, regardless of what his nationality, age, race, or religious convictions, draws a wage depending on the quantity and quality of work done.

WHAT ARE THE WAGE FORMS?

A worker's qualification is reflected in his rates of pay — the better his skill, the higher his rates. There are also higher rates for arduous or harmful work and for work in faraway areas.

Time-work is paid for according to fixed rates and the duration of work. Under the time-and-bonus system bonuses are paid for work over and above the quota required by the rates. Piece-work is paid for according to the quantity of goods produced at certain piece-rates. A piece-rate worker's pay is not limited in any way. There are also the piece-and-bonus system, when the piece-wage is combined with awarding bonuses for producing a certain amount of goods, and the progressive piece-rate system, when piece-rates grow after the fulfilment of a definite quota.

The current economic reform enables the management of an individual enterprise to choose whatever form of pay they think best. They may and often do use a variety of piece-pay, when the quota and rates for each worker or a group are set not for one operation but a complete job (an assembled unit or a repaired machine). Under this system

the workers know exactly the scope of their assignment and organise their work accordingly.

The economic reform makes wages more dependent on the results of the efforts of the entire enterprise. The higher the profit, the bigger the sales and better the quality, the more money there is to pay to the workers.

In practice this is done by setting up material incentive funds to which part of the profit is directed. The fund is used to pay bonuses for overfulfilling quotas as well as the annual bonus usually paid at the end of the year. The growing amount of profit and profitability enhances the share of bonuses in earnings. The size of bonuses also depends on the contribution of every enterprise and each worker to the development of production and raising its efficiency.

Enterprises are given broad rights to choose specific indicators and terms of awarding bonuses for raising labour productivity and quality of goods and for saving raw materials and other supplies. Bonuses for the engineers and technicians depend on the fulfilment of the basic economic assignments of their enterprise.

All questions pertaining to wages are examined by the USSR Council of Ministers' State Committee on Labour and Wages. Any decision taken must have the consent of the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions. In making decisions on such major questions trade union bodies will necessarily enlist the cooperation of their local organisations.

HOW IS THE WORK QUOTA SET?

Fixing payment of working time for one unit of production or for a fixed amount of work is essentially the main factor in setting wages and increasing labour productivity. As the basis for setting the quota a technically substantiated figure is taken, one which corresponds to the rate of work of an average worker. Also borne in mind are the potentialities of mechanisation and the correct organisation of work. The average percentage of the fulfilment of technically substantiated quotas is in the region of 105-115 per cent, and at some enterprises as much as 120-130. It is a rare case when a worker falls short of his quota due to lack of skill.

Quotas may be revised in the course of the year at the decision of the management and the trade union committee. This is usually done when new equipment is introduced or when mechanisation or automation are brought in. New quotas are set only when it is certain that they are perfectly realistic and will not cause a drop in wages.

IS OVERTIME ALLOWED? IF SO, HOW IS IT PAID?

No management has the right to detain a worker after working hours without union permission. Any manager found guilty of trying to introduce unauthorised overtime, is severely punished. That is the union's attitude on this issue.

Nevertheless, in special circumstances overtime may be unavoidable, say, when there is an accident at a factory, etc. The union may give approval, but no one can work more than 120 hours overtime a year, and no more than four extra hours two days in a row. Certain workers are barred from overtime: juveniles under 18, pregnant women, nursing mothers, day and evening school pupils (on study days) and invalids. No compensatory time-off is permitted for doing overtime.

If someone does overtime on the time-rate he gets time-and-a-half for the first two hours and double-time thereafter.

Piece-workers get for the first two hours additional pay amounting to half the hourly grading of a time-worker of the corresponding category, and thereafter, the full hourly grading rate.

ARE THERE BONUSES FOR LONG SERVICE?

An annual bonus is paid to miners and workers in metallurgical, chemical, oil and gas industries, transport and some other branches who have been working for more than three years, the amount varying from one to two months' wages. Underground workers with a service record of 2-3 years are entitled to an annual bonus of 80 per cent of the monthly wages. Workers in the Urals, Siberia and the Far East receive annual long-service bonuses of up to 400 and 600 roubles.

Workers in the Far North and other areas with an exceptionally rigorous climate get a 10 per cent increase every 6-12 months (but not more than 80 per cent of the basic wages), and every year they receive an additional 12-18 day paid holiday. Once in three years they receive free return fare to a resort or any other place they choose, travelling time not counted in the leave. It is planned to further extend the benefits to workers in the Far North and areas with similar climatic conditions.

WHAT IS SOCIALIST EMULATION?

This is a voluntary competition among individual workers, office employees, collective farmers and groups of workers for better work performance. It is based not on vanity or selfishness but on the natural desire to make a greater contribution to the common cause of building a new life.

Socialist emulation reflects the new attitude of Soviet workers to their work, which is only possible in a new, socialist society where there is no exploitation of man by man, where all factories, the land, banks and transport—all means of production—belong to the people, that is, to every working man. Work for oneself, for one's own society gives rise to a new attitude, new incentives for raising productivity, increasing the direct interest of each worker in the results of his labour; the greater the wealth of the entire socialist society, the better off is each of its members. This gives rise to creative initiative of the workers which finds expression in various forms of socialist emulation. Friendly competition offers broad opportunities for displaying the abilities of each worker in the interests of society and the individual.

Socialist emulation emerged in 1929 in Leningrad. On their own initiative a couple of teams at the Krasny Vyborzhets Plant decided to challenge each other to improve the output figures. Their example caught on at other factories. The very same year Donets basin miners decided to fulfil the Five-Year-Plan targets in four years. In Gorlovka a miners' pact was signed for the whole of the Donets basin, bearing a promise to beat the plan in coal output.

Over the years, as the new society began to take shape, forms of socialist emulation changed and became more thorough-going. The thirties saw the birth of the movement for higher labour productivity, for more rational utilisation of equipment. The Donbass miner Alexei Stakhanov was the initiator of this movement.

Today, emulation embraces some nine-tenths of the country's wage and salary earners. Not only a workshop competes with a workshop, but towns and economic regions compete among themselves. The results of emulations and the achievements of the best workers are broadly publicised. The winning enterprises are awarded honorary red banners and money prizes, while individual workers receive honorary certificates, valuable prizes and bonuses.

Socialist emulation is truly nation-wide. In every field of activity it has become a powerful stimulant of social progress.

WHAT IS THE COMMUNIST LABOUR MOVEMENT?

This is one of the most widespread movements which has arisen in the past few years. It is a new, more profound and more embracing form of socialist emulation.

The movement started in 1958 at the time of the mass discussion of the Communist Party's draft programme. The pioneers were workers at a Moscow railway depot. It is interesting to note that workers at this depot were also initiators of the *Communist Subbotniks* back in the early years of Soviet power when they stayed behind after work or came in on their day off to repair locomotives free. This time their initiative involved a decision to work and live the communist way. Immediately thousands of workers followed their example.

Taking part in the communist labour movement are now more than 35 million people, over 300,000 enterprises, production shops, sections, shifts and teams. Fifty thousand enterprises have already been awarded the honorary title of communist labour collectives. The award is conferred on the best workers and enterprises after broad public discussion. For example, the title «communist labour team» may be awarded by a general meeting of a shop's workers. The title «communist labour worker» is given to winners

in socialist emulation who also show exemplary attitude to work, to the interests of society, and their comrades.

The participants in the movement follow the moral code of builders of a communist society proclaimed in the Programme of the Soviet Communist Party. They seek to get the best results in their work, show a business-like approach to production problems and social matters, add to their technical and economic knowledge in order to be able to make a fuller contribution to production management. This is the purpose of voluntary designing offices, bureaus of economic analysis, laboratories and other organisations which operate after working hours on a social basis.

Another important aspect of the movement is that communist labour workers seek to broaden their general outlook. As a rule, they study at correspondence schools and colleges or attend universities of culture. In other words, people are endeavouring to improve themselves in keeping with the spirit of the times and social progress.

HOW CAN A WORKER IMPROVE HIS QUALIFICATIONS?

In the collective agreements concluded between a factory management and its workers there is always a special clause dealing with the management's obligations as regards the training of workers. It indicates the number of workers that have to be instructed in new trades, and how many people must be guaranteed an opportunity to raise their qualifications. Instruction at factories is given according to a long-term plan drawn up with the participation of the workers.

At factories workers are trained for jobs which do not require a long time to learn (usually under 6 months). They may study and receive instruction individually or in teams and courses, or at special production-and-training shops organised at bigger plants. After passing the final examination the trainee is given a certain qualification category. Examination is conducted by a competent commission in which at least one member represents the trade union.

Workers may improve their qualifications at vocational courses, schools of advanced methods of work or by learning a related job independently or in a group.

The system of free vocational training gives each worker a practical opportunity to learn a new trade or improve his skill and knowledge.

In 1965 over 3.4 million workers were trained in the Soviet Union, while some 9.5 million improved their qualifications.

HOW ARE SKILLED WORKERS TRAINED?

Skilled workers receive their training in technical schools, training courses ranging from one to three years. Some, however, gain experience at enterprises by means of individual-team or course training.

The technical schools usually take youngsters with an 8-year or secondary education.

Tuition is free. A considerable part of the pupils have all their expenses paid by the state, the rest receiving state allowances. The pupils receive good professional and general training. They begin practical work in the school's workshops and continue at factories where they go to work. Urban vocational schools train workers for the industries, transport, construction, trade and utility services, while the pupils of rural schools learn to operate and service farm machinery, power units, etc.

In 1966 vocational schools trained over one million young skilled workers, the plan for 1966-70 being in excess of 6 million.

The body responsible for training throughout the country is the State Committee on Professional-Technical Education of the USSR Council of Ministers. In the Republics this body comes under the jurisdiction of the chief administrations of the Republican Councils of Ministers, while in the regions the regional administrations are in charge. Planned training of skilled workers allows for full consideration of factory requirements for skilled manpower. Where and how many workers are needed is known in advance. Accordingly, every technical school trains skilled workers for definite enterprises, with an eye to their needs for each trade. Factory management is obligated to give the newly trained workers jobs in keeping with their skill, provide them with housing and furnish conditions for improving their qualifications.

DO THE WORKERS TAKE PART IN IMPROVING PRODUCTION TECHNIQUES?

At every factory the workers keep a keen eye on all operations. Together with the engineers they help to invent new equipment and improve old machinery. Between 1959 and 1965 inventions and innovations brought in about 13,200 million roubles.

In 1958 the trade unions sponsored the creation of the All-Union Society for Inventors and Innovators. It has a membership of 4 million. The Society maintains branches at practically all enterprises to see that the management provides the best conditions for stimulating inventions and innovations, and assists them in preparing the technical documentation. It also publishes a magazine.

Participation in improving output is also effected through the scientific and technological societies which look after certain problems in various industries. There are 21 such societies in the country at present. They have a common membership of 3,000,000 and over 60,000 local organisations at factories and institutions. The societies run 1,300 universities of culture, and scientific and technological progress on a social basis and publish 50 scientific and technical magazines.

WHAT DOES THE WORKER THINK OF AUTOMATION?

Automation presents no worries in the Soviet Union since the workers see it as a means for creating the material and technical basis of communism. The workers themselves frequently take a hand in designing and installing new automatic production lines.

Not only do mechanisation and automation stimulate production and make working conditions easier, but they also encourage workers and technicians to improve their qualifications. This in turn, tends to improve their well-being both through higher wages and the faster growth of public consumption funds.

In a planned economy it is known well beforehand when and where new equipment will be installed and how many workers it will replace. All workers «forced out» by automa-

tion learn a new job at state expense or are given the same job in another shop at the same scale of pay.

The main result of automation is an immense increase in labour productivity. Automation multiplies the fruits of labour and changes its very nature. We can say with confidence that in future machines will replace man now working at high temperature or pressure, or in a polluted or harmful atmosphere.

Automation will make human labour more intellectual, it will help bridge the gap between manual and intellectual work.

The benefits of automation can be used to full advantage only in a rationally organised society where the workers released by automation can be effectively employed.

The socialist system is such a society where the vast opportunities of automation can be utilised in a planned manner, for the good of all working people.

CAN A MOTHER GO BACK TO HER OLD JOB AFTER GIVING BIRTH TO A BABY?

According to law a working woman keeps her job during the 112-day paid leave granted to mothers. She may further use her regular paid leave immediately after the maternity leave and have still another additional leave, this time at her own expense. Thus a job is kept open for a working mother for at least seven months. If she goes back to the job within a year, her service record is counted unbroken, which also affects the percentage of the wage paid for sick leave.

Late in 1966 all benefits granted to a mother were extended to women who adopted children from a maternity home.

When a mother returns to work she may place her child in a nursery where the infant will be in safe hands under the constant observation of qualified nurses and doctors. By law, a mother is entitled to a paid break of not less than thirty minutes every 3.5 hours to breast-feed her child.

Not long ago the Trade Union Council adopted a resolution, instructing factory managers to provide all women returning to work after giving birth, with free accommodations at a health or holiday home at the factory's expense.

WHAT IS THE POSITION OF JUVENILES?

The employment of persons under 16 years of age is prohibited by a decree of the Presidium of the USSR Supreme Soviet. In exceptional cases 15-year-olds may be employed with the permission of the trade union committee. To improve the conditions of labour and leisure and also to give young workers an opportunity to study, the working day is limited to 4 hours for 15-16-year-olds and 6 hours for workers from 16 to 18 years of age. No discrimination whatsoever in relation to juveniles is allowed. They get the same wage as adults for a full day's work. If the juvenile does piece-work he gets the same rate as an adult (according to his grade) with additional pay according to the grade scale, for the hours short of the full working day. The employment of factory and office workers under 18 years of age on overtime jobs and on night shifts is strictly prohibited. These workers get one-month paid leave a year.

From 1965 15-year-old children of collective farmers and collective farmers aged 16-17 years who require sanatorium treatment have been receiving accommodation either free or at a discount, paid out of the state social insurance fund. Four hundred thousand roubles were expended on this in 1965.

There are also benefits for all adolescents in town and country who have to travel to sanatoriums. 18-year-old workers pay only half the railway fare from November to April. The same discount is granted from October to May to 15-17-year-olds travelling to sanatoriums and back by ship or jet plane.

HOW LONG IS A PAID LEAVE?

From two weeks to two months a year. The total duration of a paid leave includes the basic leave (12 working days) and various additional paid leaves ranging from 3 to 36 working days. Many categories—workers under 18 years of age, workers in the timber industry, teachers, scientists have an extended basic leave of 24-48 working days.

The duration of the additional paid leave granted together with the basic one ranges, as we have said, from 3 to 36 working days depending on one's occupation and

working conditions. For example, a typist has 6 days of additional leave, a welder 12 days and medical personnel attending mentally deranged or retarded children, 36 days.

Besides the additional leave due to working conditions extra paid leaves are also granted: a) to workers employed in the Far North or other distant areas (12-18 days); b) to workers employed at the same enterprise for a long time; (for instance, miners, metallurgy and textile workers, railwaymen, builders and workers in some other industries have an additional 3-day leave after working for two years, the workers in the timber industry have an additional monthly leave for each three years of work); c) to workers studying without leaving their jobs or applying for admission to secondary and higher specialised schools or post-graduate courses (10 days to 4 months to prepare for and take examinations); d) as a compensation for work outside working hours; (for example, managerial, technical, executive personnel and other workers whose activity often goes beyond the normal working day receive a two-week additional leave).

The pay for leave is based on the average monthly earnings in the preceding year. If a worker falls ill while on leave, it is either prolonged or postponed. An unused leave is carried over to the next year. By agreement with the management leaves for two successive years, and in the Far North even for three years, may be added up. If a worker is discharged, he receives cash compensation for unused leave.

By agreement with the management a worker may take an additional leave at his own expense.

Living Standards

WHAT MAKES UP THE NATIONAL INCOME?

Within a certain period of time, say, one year, a vast amount of products are manufactured, all of which make up the gross national product. The gross national product is the basis of the country's national income.

The national income is the gross national product minus that portion which makes up for the utilised means of production. In other words, the national income is the entire new value created by the work of society within the given year.

HOW IS THE NATIONAL INCOME DISTRIBUTED AND USED?

The national income is the basis of raising the population's standard of living. The bigger the national income the more material wealth society will consume.

The national income in the Soviet Union is made up of two basic funds: the consumption fund and accumulation fund.

The consumption fund has for many years been making up three-quarters of the national income. This fund is used in the following way: firstly, on payment for the labour of workers, farmers and intellectuals; secondly, on expenditures for the development of public education, science, culture, health protection, improvement of living conditions, old-age and disability pensions, payments to mothers with many children or unmarried mothers, etc.; thirdly, in expenditures for maintenance of the state apparatus, its central and local bodies and in expenditures on defence needs.

The accumulation fund makes up about a quarter of the national income. It is spent on expanding of production, on enlarging the non-productive funds of the national economy and on raising reserve funds.

The socialist state distributes the national income in a planned order, with consideration for the working people's interests and the harmonious development of the whole of society.

In 1965 the Soviet national income was 192,600 million roubles. Of this sum (compensation for losses and foreign trade balance deducted) 190,400 million was used in the national economy, including 140,700 million roubles spent on consumption and 49,700 million on accumulation and other needs.

Out of the 140,700 million roubles of the consumption fund 123,900 million was spent on individual consumption of the population (88.1 per cent); 12,400 million on material needs of institutions servicing the population (education, health protection, etc.), i. e., 8.8 per cent; 4,400 million roubles (3.1 per cent) was spent on material needs of research institutions and administrative bodies.

The 49,700 million roubles of the accumulation fund was made up of an 19,000 million roubles increase in fixed productive assets; a 9,900 million increase in non-productive assets and a 20,800 million increase in circulating money and reserves.

WHAT IS THE NATIONAL INCOME'S RATE OF GROWTH?

By 1965 it increased more than six-fold compared with 1940. In 1966 it increased by 7.5 per cent as compared with the previous year.

The 1966-70 Five-Year Plan envisages the further rapid growth of the national income. The increase will be 38 to 41 per cent against the 33 per cent of the preceding five-year period. The planned average annual increase of 6.7-7.1 per cent in the national income is very large particularly when you consider that during the four years (1962-65) of economic upsurge in capitalist economies the annual increase was 4.3 per cent in America, 3.4 per cent in Britain, 4.3 per cent in Federal Germany and 5.4 per cent in France.

The consumption fund, that is, the amount of the material and cultural benefits enjoyed by the people, in 1966-70 will have grown by 36-39 per cent as compared with the previous five-year period, and the absolute increase will be 70 per cent greater than that of the previous period. On the whole, more than 190,000 million roubles of the national income will be used to meet the material and cultural needs of the people in 1970, that is, 50,000 million more than in 1965.

WHAT ARE PUBLIC CONSUMPTION FUNDS?

They are the portion of the national income that is used to provide the people with free material and cultural benefits. These benefits are enjoyed by everybody, regardless of income and social position.

When a person needs an operation it is paid for by the state. Under a paid system of medical services he would have had to pay for this operation out of his own pocket. Big families, whose children go to school or a university would have immediately felt what the «invisible income» coming from the public funds meant if suddenly payment were required for tuition. Thanks to the public funds sportsmen do not have to pay for the use of stadiums, sports facilities and the services of trainers. When a person goes on holiday he is given accommodation in a holiday home or sanatorium at a discount or free of charge.

The state pays out big sums of money for pensions and allowances without deducting any money from the working people for the social welfare fund. Housing and communal construction is carried out on an immense scale, although the state does not profit from it.

In this way while a part of the population's real incomes is made up of their income from labour, the other part comes from the public consumption fund. This fund is set aside from the state budget and social insurance funds, supervised by the trade unions, as well as from the funds of state enterprises, collective farms and public organisations. The public consumption fund is something like an additional 25-30 per cent of real incomes.

The public consumption fund, a form of distribution of the national wealth, is a result of the objective conditions of the life of Soviet society.

Under socialism working people get wages according to the amount and quality of their labour.

Since there are differences in the nature of labour, qualifications and ability, the working people get paid differently, hence have different levels of consumption.

Inequality in consumption will be eliminated only in a communist society, where there will be an abundance of consumer goods and where the principle «from each according to his ability, to each according to his needs» will be implemented.

The distribution of a part of the national income through public funds brings closer to some extent the levels of consumption in society.

Statistics show that lower-paid workers and big families get more in payments and allowances from public funds, than other sections of the working population. It is important from the social point of view. Social funds make it possible for all the working people to have materially equal opportunities for enjoying education, medical services, leisure, etc.

In 1940 the public consumption fund was 4,600 million roubles. The figure was 45,200 million in 1966. 700 roubles were spent per each family out of the public consumption fund over and above their salaries in different payments and allowances.

The following figures illustrate the main trends in the utilisation of the public consumption fund (1965 data):

	Approximate distribution of funds (thous. mln. roubles)	The same per cent of total
Public consumption fund, total including:	41.5	100
Maintenance and raising of the growing generation, training of personnel	13.4	32.4
Health protection and recreation	12.8	31.0
Maintenance of the aged and dis- abled members of society	10.9	26.0
Public, cultural and other services	4.4	10.6

In 1970 the public consumption fund will have grown by at least 40 per cent as compared with 1965 and will amount to 60,000 million roubles.

HOW IS THE STANDARD OF LIVING RISING?

Statisticians scrupulously calculate figures reflecting the changes in the standard of living, but actually these changes are obvious without any calculations. If new apartment blocks are going up, if the shops and theatres are crowded, if there is a mass demand for cars, pianos and motor-scooters. it means that the living standards are rising.

Figures back this up. In 1966 the population bought 35 per cent more refrigerators than in the preceding year, 12 per cent more washing machines, 16 per cent more TV sets, and 7 per cent more cars. It must be pointed out that the demand for cars, refrigerators, washing machines and some other durable commodities was not met fully which means that the buying potential of the population was not realised completely.

The 1966 per capita real incomes of the working people increased more than 6 per cent as compared with 1965.

The growth of the population's real incomes is above all due to rises in payment for labour. In 1966 real incomes tripled as compared with 1940:

It is planned to raise the real incomes of the population in 1970 by about 30 per cent against the level of 1965.

HOW DO REAL WAGES AND SALARIES INCREASE?

In 1965 they went up to 130 per cent as compared with 1940.

Naturally, the real incomes of the wage and salary workers grow due to the rises in their earnings. This brings about some levelling of the differences in incomes, an improvement in the methods of payment for work and greater material incentives.

Of late years the average earnings of factory and office employees in the sphere of material production have gone up nearly 10 per cent, and in the service sphere, 21 per cent. As a result, wage and salary earners received 7,400 million roubles a year more.

Average payments and allowances to factory and office employees from the public consumption fund in 1965 amounted to 33 roubles per person (paid leaves excluded). This brought the monthly earnings of factory and office employees up to 128 roubles that year. Expressed in family equivalents (1.6 people work in every family) these earnings were 205 roubles. Apart from that, the state spends additional 140 roubles a year per family by way of building apartments, schools, cultural and medical institutions.

In 1966 the average monthly earnings of wage and salary workers increased by 3.6 per cent as compared with 1965 and came to 99 roubles. If considered together with payments and benefits from the public consumption fund, the sum was 134 roubles a month.

During the 1966-70 period the average monthly wages and salaries will go up at least 20 per cent compared to 1965 and will be 115 roubles in 1970; with benefits from the public consumption fund, 155 roubles.

The rise in salaries and wages will come from the material incentive funds, being set up at enterprises that go over to new methods of planning and economic stimulation. Bonuses and allowances to workers paid from the profits of the enterprise will be an important source of raising the wages.

HOW ARE THE REAL INCOMES OF FARMERS RISING?

In 1966 the farmers' real incomes increased by 260 per cent as compared with 1940.

There has been a 8.5-fold rise in the farmers' real incomes compared to 1913. Such are the figures. In reality everything is much more complicated. There are poorer and richer farms. But there are no farms that become worse off, for the standard of living is going up in the countryside.

By 1970 the collective farmers' incomes will have increased by 35-40 per cent as compared with 1965.

It was a tremendous job to elevate the multi-million masses of the village poor, that made up the bulk of the population of pre-revolutionary Russia, to the level of a secure and cultured life. The illiterate peasant, often without even one horse, with only one torn blanket to cover his hungry children, was the symbol of the old Russian village. But not only the Russian village—the Ukrainian, Georgian or Moldavian village also.

The Soviet countryside has changed beyond recognition. In 1965 there were almost 265,000 shops in the rural areas, 55,500 other trading establishments, over 55,600 cafeterias, restaurants and cafes, 43,800 service establishments, 25,200 kindergartens and nurseries, over 111,300 clubs and 122,300 cineprojectors. 21.6 million children attended school in the 1965/66 school year.

However, despite the tremendous changes in the life of the countryside which have taken place in Soviet times, there are still traces of backwardness. Life in many villages is far behind life in towns. For that reason the Communist Party attaches extreme importance to basically improving the living conditions of the rural population and creates all the necessary conditions for it. The 1966-70 plan envisages the construction of over 10,000 schools, 8,000 clubs and 2-2.5 million houses in rural areas. The state will grant the collective farms 15-year credits for cultural and communal development.

More and more machinery is being used in the countryside and every year more than 200,000 kilometres of electric transmission lines are built. At present all the state farms are electrified and by the end of 1967 all the collective farms will have electricity for work and the home. Great

changes have taken place in the character and content of farm work, which is increasingly being mechanised and is gradually approaching the level of industrial labour. The number of specialists working at farms is also rapidly growing. While in 1941 there were about 50,000 specialists with a higher or secondary education working in agriculture, by 1966 this number had increased tenfold and was almost half a million. 31 per cent of the farmers have a complete or an incomplete secondary education. Today the cultured, educated person with wide-ranging interests is the symbol of the village.

WHAT DOES EACH PUPIL AND STUDENT COST THE STATE?

The state annually spends about 90 roubles for the education of each pupil and 150 roubles in the prolonged day groups. At boarding schools the upkeep and education of each pupil costs more than 900 roubles a year. At institutions of higher learning, state expenses are still bigger. Counting his grant, each student costs the state from 830 to 1,060 roubles a year.

WHAT IS PUBLIC HEALTH EXPENDITURE?

In 1967 7,400 million roubles have been earmarked in the State Budget for public health expenditures (as against a little over 900 million roubles in 1940). In addition, considerable sums of money were spent for this purpose from enterprises' funds.

WHAT DOES THE HOSPITALISATION OF ONE PERSON COST THE STATE?

An average of 5-6 roubles a day or 150-180 roubles a month. Patients do not pay for hospital accommodations, medical consultations, operations, treatment or medicines. A simple operation for appendicitis with four days' hospitalisation costs the state nearly 68 roubles, while the nine days that women in childbirth spend in a maternity home cost 175 roubles.

The state pays allowances to industrial, office and other workers who are unable to work because of illness or accident. These allowances range from 50 to 100 per cent of the wage or salary depending upon service record.

WHAT DO MEDICINES COST?

The state does not strive for commercial profit out of the production of medicines. It sells them mainly below cost in order to make them accessible to everybody.

For example, on January 1, 1965 prices were lowered on antibiotics and on some other medicines. The state granted or actually «lost» 40 million roubles a year from this cut in prices. Apart from that, the state earmarked additional 58 million roubles for the supply of free medicines in hospitals and homes for the aged and invalids and also on expanding free treatment for outpatients.

ARE THERE MANY VERY OLD PEOPLE IN THE USSR?

There are over 100,000 people between 90 and 99 and nearly 21,700 centenarians. These people live in the Caucasus and Yakutia, in the Altai Mountains and in the Kuban, in short, throughout the USSR. The village of Barzavu, Azerbaijan, is the home of one of the oldest man on earth—Shiralibaba Muslimov, who turned a hundred and sixty in 1965. The Soviet Union has 10 persons over 100 years of age per 100,000 people; the USA 1.5; Britain 0.6 and France 0.7.

HOW IS THE FOOD PATTERN CHANGING?

If we take the population as a whole we can say quite definitely that tastes and requirements are noticeably changing. People are beginning to eat more meat, butter, fruit and milk and less bread and potatoes.

The following table shows the change in per capita consumption of the main foodstuffs.

Foodstuffs, kg.	1950	1960	1965
Meat (poultry included)	26	40	41
Milk and dairy products	172	240	252
Fish and fish products	7.0	9.9	12.6
Sugar	11.6	28.0	34.2
Oil	2.7	5.3	7.1
Potatoes	241	143	141
Vegetables and melons	51	70	73
Bread	172	164	156
Eggs (actual number)	60	118	124

The 1966-70 plan envisages the following increase in the sale of foodstuffs to the population in the sphere of state retail trade: meat and meat products by 21 per cent, milk and dairy products 37 per cent, fish and fish products 71 per cent, sugar 22 per cent, oil 65 per cent, vegetables and melons 44 per cent, fruit and grapes 30 per cent.

The food industry's output will have increased by 40 per cent on the whole during the period concerned. Along with increasing production and improving the quality of foodstuffs there will be a much greater variety.

HOW IS THE SALE OF DURABLES DEVELOPING?

As the working people's incomes rise their expenditures on durables grow as well. This is illustrated by the following figures of the sale of some of these items:

Commodities (thous. pieces)	1950	1960	1965
Wireless sets and radiograms	992	4,179	4,980
TV sets	12	1,488	3,338
Clocks and watches	8,226	22,326	21,926
Pianos and grand pianos	12	91	155
Refrigerators	1.2	518	1,458
Washing machines	0.3	907	3,141
Motorcycles and motor-scooters	113	501	690

It is planned considerably to increase production, hence the sale of durables during the 1966-70 period. For example the average number of refrigerators sold a year will be 3.7 million; washing machines, 3.8 million; radio-sets and radio-record players, 6 million; and TV sets 5.4 million.

WHAT PERSONAL PROPERTY DO PEOPLE POSSESS?

A flat or house, holiday cottage, a car, a savings account, a motor-boat, in other words, anything for personal use, for everyday life. In addition, collective farmers own barns and cattle, and the products from their subsidiary plot.

In the USSR the right to personal property is guaranteed and protected by law. However, personal property cannot be used for purposes of exploitation of hired labour and profiteering.

DO PEOPLE HAVE PERSONAL SAVINGS?

Naturally. At the beginning of 1967 accounts in the savings banks totalled 22,900 million roubles (4,200 million roubles more than in 1966), and there were 61,000,000 depositors.

WHAT TAXES DO PEOPLE PAY?

Only about 8 per cent of the State Budget's revenue consists of taxes. In the 1967 budget, for example, the revenue is 110,200 million roubles of which only 9,000 million comes from taxes.

The income tax is paid by workers, office employees, handicraftsmen, whose earnings are above 60 roubles a month. This tax is paid monthly and ranges between 0.7 and 13 per cent of the wage or salary, depending on earnings. Citizens having more than three dependents pay 30 per cent less in income tax. Relieved from the income tax are servicemen (not officers), pensioners, students of trade and vocational schools.

The bachelor and childless family tax is used to cover a part of the state's allocations for allowances to mothers of large families and unmarried mothers and for mother and

child protection. It is paid by men between the age of 20 and 50 and by married women between the age of 20 and 45. The rate is 6 per cent of the wage or salary of persons who have no children. It is not paid by servicemen (men and non-commissioned officers), students at secondary schools and higher educational institutions under 25, invalids and unmarried women.

The rural population, collective farmers and other citizens who have individual plots of land, pay agricultural tax. It depends on the size of the plot and the climatic zone and not on the income the plot brings to its owner.

Depending on local conditions the agricultural tax in the Russian Federation, for example, ranges between 30 copecks and one rouble 40 copecks per 0.01 hectare. The firm rate of taxation allows a more rational use of land and stimulates the owners. Invalids, families of servicemen, aged people and rural intellectuals enjoy vast privileges and are sometimes even completely relieved of the taxes.

The farmers' earnings from collective labour are taken into account in the income tax of the farm. It is deducted from the collective farm's net profit and a part of the incomes the farm distributes as payment for labour.

In addition to these taxes, the population pays small local taxes and dues: owners of houses pay a house tax and land rent; a tax is paid by owners of means of transport; and dues are paid for a stand at collective farm markets.

All these taxes and dues play a very small role in the State Budget. More than nine-tenths of budgetary receipts come from socialist enterprises and organisations. The share and importance of taxes, which are steadily decreasing, have narrowed down so much that a law on the gradual abolition of income taxes has been passed.

ARE THERE INDIRECT TAXES?

No, because there is no need for them. The state owns the basic means of production—factories, mills, mines, power stations and establishes economically substantiated prices on finished goods. For that reason the introduction of indirect taxes would signify taking money from one state pocket and putting it into another.

WHAT ARE THE USUAL ITEMS OF EXPENDITURE OF WAGE AND SALARY WORKERS?

This can be seen from the following table in which a comparison is made with figures for the USA (in per cent). This table has been compiled on the basis of a test survey conducted by the Central Statistical Board of the USSR and also on the basis of official American statistics:

	USSR	USA
Total expenditures, including:	100	100
Direct taxes	8	12
Social insurance expenditure	—	4
Rents and communal services	4	20
Medical services and education	0.1	5
Transport	3	13
Food and consumer goods	75	37
Miscellaneous	9.9	9

WHY ARE THERE HOUSING DIFFICULTIES?

The USSR found itself faced with a housing problem virtually during the very first days of its existence. Old Russia left a miserable heritage. Even in the towns most of the houses were ramshackle, wooden structures devoid of elementary conveniences, such as electricity, running water and sewerage. The working people were in a particularly grievous plight, living in damp basements and tiny rooms. But the housing problem was tackled as soon as the possibility arose.

Old structures were torn down and big blocks of flats built in their stead. Water and gas piping, sewerage systems, etc., were installed. The cobbled roads were paved with asphalt. New towns sprang up. But the urban population also grew rapidly. The former ploughman went to work in the factory and he had to be provided with housing. This created additional difficulties in a country with such a huge population.

That was a natural process. But it was extremely rapid owing to the turbulent economic development. Suffice it to say, that from 1926 the urban population of the USSR increased by 98.1 million and was 124.7 million at the beginning of 1966. Not a single capitalist country (Japan excluded) has known such a rapid growth of the urban population even during periods of economic upsurge. For example, the urban population in the United States had increased from 18 to 52 per cent during the 60 years between 1860 and 1920, whereas the same increase in the urban population took only 37 years in the USSR (1926-63). It is only natural that the growth of the urban population at such a rate in the Soviet Union, the great need for living space—the legacy of the past—created and still presents serious difficulties in the solution of the housing problem.

The Second World War had even further aggravated this problem. The fascists destroyed 30,000 plants and factories, 1,700 towns and workers' settlements and over 70,000 villages, 25 million people were left without any place to live.

This is why there is still a housing problem, despite the tremendous scale of construction.

HOW IS THE STATE SOLVING THE HOUSING PROBLEM?

Housing construction is being carried at a tremendous rate. More housing space is being built in the Soviet Union than in all the European capitalist countries combined. The USSR holds one of the leading places in the world in the number of apartments built per unit of the population. In 1965 there were 9.6 apartments built in the Soviet Union per 1,000 people, in the United States 7.9 apartments, in Britain 7.3 apartments and in France 8.4 apartments.

The Soviet builders aim to provide the people with maximum conveniences and, at the same time, to build sturdy houses quickly and at a low cost. This aim is being achieved through advanced construction methods, in particular, through prefabricated large building elements. Factories and plants turning out blocks of flats are now in operation. Machines prefabricate the main building elements

and also entire flats, which are assembled at the construction site.

The scale of construction work shows that the housing problem is being solved. During the 1961-65 period alone 11.5 million apartments were built in the USSR. More than 54.6 million people received new apartments or otherwise improved their living conditions.

1,850 thousand new apartments were built in towns in 1966 and about 370,000 houses in rural areas. As a result almost 11 million more people moved to new flats or changed their flats for bigger ones.

The state spends enormous sums of money on housing construction. It is planned to earmark over 45,000 million roubles for housing and communal construction between 1966 and 1970 (10,000 million roubles more than in the preceding five-year period). During this period more than 11 million apartments, with a total living space of over 480 million square metres will be built in towns. The increase in state and cooperative construction as compared with the previous five-year period will be something like 100 million square metres.

Meanwhile 2 to 2.5 million houses will be built by the collective farms and the rural population.

This is a vast programme. More housing space will be built in the five years than what was available in 1940. About 65 million people, 11 million more than in the previous five years, will receive new apartments or improve their living conditions. Still the housing problem will not be solved completely. For that reason the rate of housing construction will be even higher after 1970.

There is no doubt that the housing problem—one of the biggest social problems of today's world—will be settled in the Soviet Union in the near future.

HOW IS HOUSING DISTRIBUTED?

This is handled by local authorities with the participation of the public. The main criterion is the extent to which housing is needed. Certain privileges are enjoyed by war invalids, persons who have rendered the country special services and people disabled at work.

The local authorities keep a list of people requiring better housing. Here a big role is played by public commissions, which prepare and submit suggestions on distribution of housing and for putting people on the waiting list. To avoid abuses the lists with the names of the people due to receive new housing are hung where everybody can see them. Apartments in houses built by enterprises and institutions are distributed among salary and wage earners by the administration and the trade union organisation, whose decisions must be approved by the local Soviet.

The size of the apartment depends on the size of the family. In the Russian Federation, for example, the quota is 9 square metres per person and in the Ukraine, 13.6 square metres (kitchen, corridors, etc. are not counted). In future this quota will be raised.

WHAT CHANGE HAS THERE BEEN IN THE SOVIET UNION'S HOUSING RESOURCES SINCE THE REVOLUTION?

Before the Revolution 80 per cent of the houses in towns had one or two storeys and were made of wood. Only a few buildings had central heating. There was water only in 10 per cent of the houses and the sewerage system covered less than three per cent of houses situated in the centre of the biggest cities. Only five per cent of the apartment houses had electricity. Such was the extent of communal services. It goes without saying, that today all houses have all possible conveniences. Conveniences are installed in old buildings that are still in good shape.

The urban living fund was 180 million square metres in old Russia. The USSR's fund was 1,290 million square metres in 1966. During the 1926-65 period 844 new towns and 2,065 urban-type settlements were built.

HOW MUCH FOR RENT?

Rent, including communal services, does not exceed four to five per cent of the family budget. Before the Revolution, when housing was privately owned, rents amounted to 20 to 40 per cent of wages and salaries.

When people receive new flats they pay nothing for moving in, and the rent does not cover the construction expenses. Moreover, it does not even cover all the expenses entailed in maintaining the buildings. The low rents save the public over two thousand million roubles a year.

WHAT ARE TOWN PLANNING TRENDS?

The principal objective is to create maximum convenience for work and leisure. Housing is built chiefly on vacant lots, as huge blocks or groups of flats forming residential communities. Each neighbourhood has its own service establishments, children's institutions, shops, schools, sports grounds, garages and courtyards. The buildings are put up away from transport thoroughfares, in a lay-out that blends with the surroundings.

Soviet architects plan towns to make the most of sunlight, verdure, open spaces, reservoirs and pure air. They combine a free lay-out with advanced techniques and natural surroundings, with all amenities ensuring safety from high-speed traffic on main thoroughfares and maximum aesthetic effect.

The lack of private ownership of land and the planned nature of housing construction, carried out on a nation-wide scale, makes it possible to make progress in solving problems connected with modern town-building. There are some new districts that are remarkable in design and execution in Moscow, Leningrad, Kiev, Tallinn, Riga and many others.

ARE OLD TOWNS BEING RECONSTRUCTED?

Old houses and other buildings are being pulled down if they hamper increased road traffic, and streets are being reconstructed to facilitate urban transport. In Moscow, for example, a broad thoroughfare, lined with handsome modern 9-16-27-storey buildings, has taken the place of the crooked narrow streets and lanes in Arbat. As a matter

of fact, each town, whether big or small, has its own perspective plan of reconstruction. However, old architectural monuments under state protection are left standing.

HOW IS HOUSING PROGRESSING IN THE COUNTRYSIDE?

The collective farmers' growing incomes enable them to spend larger sums of money on housing construction. More than five million houses were built in rural areas in 1957-66. Whole villages are being rebuilt.

It is a difficult task to reconstruct a village. Many collective farms do not have enough money yet to start large-scale construction, there is still a lack of qualified building workers, no firm building base. But what one collective or state farm cannot manage can be easily done by centralised building organisations—inter-collective-farm associations and big state trusts. More and more such organisations are coming into being. They will place rural construction work on an industrial basis and introduce up-to-date building methods. There were more than 2,000 inter-collective-farm building associations and over 150 state building trusts by the end of 1966. The trusts have about a thousand mobile building teams, equipped with modern construction facilities. Convenient urban-type houses are under construction in the villages of the Moscow Region, the Ukraine, Byelorussia, the Baltic Area, Central Asia and other parts of the country. Hundreds of settlements and villages are being reconstructed according to plans. Ministries of Rural Construction have been set up almost in all the Republics in order to supervise the entire housing, communal and cultural development in the countryside.

WHAT ARE HOUSING COOPERATIVES?

Despite the fact that the state builds up to two million apartments a year, it still cannot provide new apartments for all who need them. For that reason housing cooperatives are organised at plants, factories and institutions, or under

the executive committees of the Soviets, for those who wish to build apartments on their own money.

Every member of the cooperative pays 40 per cent of the cost of his apartment by the time construction starts. To cover the remaining expenditures the state grants the cooperative members 10-15-year credits at 0.5 per cent annual interest. In out-of-the-way parts of the country the initial payment is only 30 per cent of the entire cost and a twenty-year state credit is granted.

The local authorities are obliged to grant the plot for construction (free of charge) not later than one month after receiving the cooperative's application for construction. They must also see to it that this plot is not far from the place of work of the cooperative members. The state bears all the expenses for improving the territory of cooperative housing, for roads and engineering communications and the construction of cultural facilities.

Cooperative construction is carried out under contract with state organisations, according to standard plans (with consideration of the cooperative members' wishes).

The state supports the development of house-building cooperatives in every way. In 1967 it granted the cooperative builders' credits to the sum of 467 million roubles—17 per cent more than in 1966. While the volume of cooperative construction in 1965 was six million square metres, in 1970 it will grow three-four times over.

CAN ONE BUILD A HOUSE FOR ONESELF?

Yes, he can. Under Soviet law every citizen has the right to build for himself a one or two-storied house with one to five rooms, in towns and in rural localities. The plot of land for the house is allocated free of charge and for perpetual use. In each case the size of this plot is determined by the local authorities.

The state encourages people to build their own homes. Individuals get easy-term loans from the state. Building enterprises provide them with standard and individual designs and free technical consultation, and help them to

acquire transport, building materials, housing components and tools.

It is planned to build individual houses totalling more than 80 million square metres of living space for factory and office workers with the help of state credits in this five-year period.

WHAT IS MEANT BY THE COMMUNIST PRINCIPLE OF DISTRIBUTION ACCORDING TO NEEDS?

The communist principle «from each according to his ability, to each according to his needs» means complete equality of all members of society and unlimited possibilities for the development of individual abilities on the basis of an abundance of the material and cultural wealth. A person's welfare will not depend on how well and how much he works but on the extent of wealth of the whole of society.

Under communism each person will have the opportunity to obtain everything he needs: society will be rich enough to satisfy everyone's requirements. This means, of course, reasonable requirements, what man really needs—good food, choice of well-tailored, modern clothes, a home with all conveniences, articles of domestic and general use: in short, everything that contributes to a fuller and more comfortable life.

WHEN WILL THE PRINCIPLE OF DISTRIBUTION ACCORDING TO NEEDS BEGIN TO BE IMPLEMENTED?

With the creation of necessary economic conditions and growth of industrial and agricultural production. Without a highly developed economy, able to ensure an abundance of the good things of life, distribution according to needs will remain only wishful thinking, a rosy dream. The scientific programme of building a communist society differs from the dreams of Utopians in that it is concrete and realistic.

Communism cannot be built at once. It would be naive to expect that one fine morning people will wake up to find

themselves in a society of abundance. For that very reason the principle of distribution according to needs is being implemented gradually.

Soviet people enjoy many material and cultural benefits free of charge. With the upsurge of the country's economy and social wealth, these benefits will multiply. In future distribution according to needs will become the dominating principle of Soviet society.

Everyday Life

WHAT NATIONAL FEATURES IN INTERIOR DECORATION ARE IN VOGUE?

People of different nations and nationalities follow a mode of life in keeping with ethnographic features and traditions. In the north of Russia (Novgorod, Vologda and Arkhangelsk Regions), in the Urals and Siberia, one can see houses decorated with fanciful carvings, carved furniture, and wooden utensils, particularly ladles and goblets, that have changed little over the centuries. In the Ukraine many houses are whitewashed. Embroidered runners are a traditional decoration, and tiled stoves are decorated with pictures of birds, animals or plants.

In the Caucasus and Central Asia the main features of interior decoration are carpets, sheepskin rugs and great numbers of cushions and pillows. This distinctive mode of furnishing can be noted even in big blocks of flats in the capitals and towns of the eastern Republics.

But in most urban houses in Russia the furnishings are much the same as in Europe and America, and bear international rather than national features. Only strictly folk

ornamentation, such as Khokhloma wood paintings, Kasli cast-iron mouldings and Vyatka toys, give national touches to the furnishings.

Changes in the way of life are connected with large-scale building of modern flats, greater national prosperity and wider use of all sorts of electrical appliances and equipment in the household.

WHAT ARE HOUSES AND FLATS LIKE IN THE USSR?

In rural localities dwellings are mainly one-storey wooden or brick houses intended for one family and usually owned by that family. In the towns the dwellings built by the state are big blocks of flats, which are most easily maintained and most comfortable in the relatively stern climates of central and north Russia and Siberia. The flats consist of one, two, three and more rooms, plus a kitchen, and bathroom designed for one family.

There are still cases when several families have to share kitchen and bathroom facilities in a flat. However, the vast scale of housing construction means that fewer flats are being shared. Families are now moving to separate flats.

WHAT APPLIANCES AND EQUIPMENT ARE THERE TO LIGHTEN HOUSEHOLD CHORES?

There are refrigerators, washing-machines, vacuum-cleaners, gas and electric stoves, floor polishers and other household appliances. Special shops and department stores sell electric irons, toasters, electric coffepots, portable gas-ranges, and kitchen-sets that shred cabbage and peel potatoes, shake cocktails and perform many other useful chores. Household gadgets are in great demand, and supplies are not always enough to meet requirements.

DOES THE HUSBAND HELP THE WIFE WITH HOUSEHOLD CHORES?

This question, naturally, is decided by the family itself, and depends on the relations between husband and wife and on their characters. In the modern family, as a rule,

both the husband and the wife work, and housework, therefore, is a joint responsibility.

Husbands, as a rule, do «unskilled» jobs, such as cleaning carpets and furniture or polishing floors. However, some of them have become good at such traditionally «female» occupations, as helping to lay the table, washing the dishes and doing their own laundry.

WHO LOOKS AFTER THE CHILDREN WHEN THE PARENTS WORK?

Most working parents send their children to nurseries or kindergartens, especially when there is no grandmother or grandfather at home. But, as yet, not all families wishing to send their children to a nursery or kindergarten can do so. If there is nobody to leave the children with at home, the problem is frequently solved with public assistance.

In recent years pensioners' councils have been set up at building management offices. They volunteer to look after small children while their parents are at work.

However, this does not solve the problem, and every effort is made to build more kindergartens and creches. In 1970 they will accommodate 12,200,000 children. This will satisfy in the main the needs of the urban population and considerably improve the position in rural areas.

WHAT FURNITURE IS MOST POPULAR?

Rapid housing construction has posed a difficult problem for the furniture industry. In Moscow alone more than 120,000 new flats are occupied every year and have to be furnished. Naturally, people want new furniture for their new homes.

They want furniture that is attractive, compact and of good utility. Sectional furniture, like toy bricks, can be adapted to suit all tastes.

Furniture most in demand includes daybeds, adjustable shelves for the kitchen or library, low coffee tables, graceful china cabinets and stylish, inexpensive suites.

Furniture sales are directly proportional to the scale of housing construction: 2.5 times more furniture was

bought in 1966 than in 1958, and 12 times more than in 1950. The best Soviet furniture is made in Leningrad, Riga, Tallinn and Moscow. The USSR imports furniture from Poland, Czechoslovakia, Finland and other countries.

WHAT CLOTHES ARE CONSIDERED FASHIONABLE?

Today's fashions emphasise the natural contours of the figure in simple, neat lines, and beauty is achieved by a combination of colour and harmony. It is risky, however, to go into detail because styles may change before this book is out.

Russian women used to keep an eye on the Paris and London fashions, but ever since the All-Union House of Fashions gained recognition in France and other countries, they have begun to heed the fashion oracles in Moscow.

Conferences at which designers propose new lines and set the general direction in clothes are held annually in the Soviet Union. Naturally, they pay attention to the trends elsewhere—particularly European fashions.

In the USSR there are nearly 40 fashion houses. These are big organisations that annually design about 4,000 new models, ranging from overalls and children's clothes to elegant evening wear.

DO WOMEN PREFER READY-MADE OR TAILOR-MADE CLOTHES?

Statistics shows that women prefer ready-made clothes. However, they also use the services of tailoring establishments, or make clothes themselves. At the display halls and fashion salons they can buy dress or suit patterns that catch their fancy. At most stores where material is sold there are cutters who cut the fabrics according to any style.

HOW ARE BIG TOWNS SUPPLIED WITH WATER?

In Moscow, for example, the water supply amounts to 600 litres a day per inhabitant which is more than London, Paris or New York obtain, nevertheless it is planned to increase this supply to 1,000 litres per inhabitant.

The public health authorities see to it that the water is not contaminated, has a pleasant taste and is absolutely colourless and odourless. Chlorine, fluorine, iodine and a number of other chemicals are added to the water for health protection.

Recent installations irradiate the water with ultraviolet rays.

WHAT COMMUNITY SERVICES ARE ENJOYED BY URBAN RESIDENTS?

These include electricity for lighting and other household uses, gas, central heating, running hot water, sewerage and garbage disposal.

Of course, the degree of modernisation differs in various towns. Before the October Revolution even such big cities as Sverdlovsk and Tashkent did not have running water. Only 23 towns had sewerage, street lighting was unknown in 200 towns, and only five per cent of the houses had electricity.

Today there are municipal services in even the smallest towns in the Soviet Union. These amenities are continually being improved. Moscow, for example, still has a few single-storey houses heated by stoves. But these houses will soon be pulled down.

Municipal enterprises and services also include public baths, barbershops and hairdressing parlours, laundries, hotels and various forms of municipal transport.

Every Republic has institutes training municipal engineers. The Academy of Municipal Economy, an important research establishment handling major town planning problems, has been functioning in Moscow for many years.

HOW IS THE FIRE-PROTECTION ORGANISED?

In Russia the fire-fighting service was set up 150 years ago. After the Revolution a decree was passed calling for the organisation of a large state network of fire-fighting services and production of modern fire-extinguishers, inspection and fire-prevention machines and appliances. Skilled engineers and technicians are trained at special

institutes. Research in this field is conducted by the Central Fire Protection Research Institute in Moscow.

There are professional fire brigades not only in all towns (each with a network of fire stations), but also at big industrial and transport enterprises and at some state offices.

Fire-fighting exercises and other undertakings are held annually to increase the number of voluntary fire-fighting squads, which are particularly numerous in rural localities.

Awards for life-saving and displaying courage during fires have been instituted in the USSR.

WHERE CAN ONE HAVE HOUSEHOLD APPLIANCES, MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS AND FURNITURE REPAIRED?

In every town there are state-run enterprises whose services include repairing furniture, painting walls and floors, laying parquet, papering, house-cleaning and washing floors and windows. Special workshops handle the tuning of musical instruments and the repair of typewriters, radio and TV sets, electrical appliances and other household items.

The practice of simply changing an item requiring repairs, say a watch, for a new one is becoming more and more widespread. If the period of guarantee has expired, this is done at a small additional cost.

New types of services are becoming popular. Among these are Service Bureaus which help look after children and sick people, organise celebrations, deliver luggage, buy tickets and do a hundred other things.

HOW DOES ONE GO ABOUT CHANGING A FLAT?

This is done through special exchange offices which keep records of all their customers and publish offers to change flats in monthly bulletins.

Reasons for changing flats are usually: moving to another town, wanting to live closer to one's place of work, marriage or divorce, or simply the desire to have a flat with a balcony or to have a fireplace in the house instead of the

prosaic water radiator. People can agree to exchange flats without the mediation of the exchange office. All they have to do is to pay 30 kopecks for an advertisement. One essential condition is that the flats to be exchanged should be approximately equal in size and conveniences. That is why, to avoid speculation with flats which are given gratis by the state, each exchange is recorded in an exchange office which issues appropriate certificates at a nominal charge of 2 roubles 50 kopecks.

There are no restrictions in the case of a cooperative flat built with one's own savings. The owner can simply sell it to anyone he wants.

WHY DO RUSSIANS LIKE TO GO TO PUBLIC BATHS?

For a Russian a bath is not simply a place to have a bath or shower. It is a place where one goes to relax. Many people regularly go to a bath-house, even if they have a bath-room at home. It makes a person feel relaxed, puts him in a good mood and is healthful. This is not an exaggeration, but a medical fact.

Bath-houses have been widespread in Russia since time immemorial, and are mentioned in the Nestor chronicles (11th-12th centuries A. D.).

The «holy of holies» in a Russian bath-house, that distinguishes and even makes it superior to other bath-houses, pools and baths, is its steam-room. Water and sometimes *kras* (which fills the room with the smell of bread) is poured on heated stones causing steam to rise and heat the room. The bathers lie or sit on wooden or stone benches and flick their skins with birch-twigs.

In Siberian villages, where almost every peasant cottage has its own bath, the bathers run out into the frost, roll in the snow and then run back into the steam-room.

The physiological importance of bath-houses has been studied in Russia. Penetrating into all pores of the body, hot steam speeds up the oxidising process and intensifies metabolism. Steam removes chronic ailments in the organism and improves blood circulation. Naturally, not everyone can stand the steam. These baths are not recommended for people with bad hearts.

HOW ARE NEW INDUSTRIAL PROJECTS SITED IN TOWNS?

Practically all new industrial projects are now being built outside towns. Switching over old factories and mills from solid to liquid fuel or gas has considerably cut down air pollution in towns. Noxious industries are being removed outside town limits. For example, a chemical plant and several other plants have been moved out of Moscow.

HOW ARE AIR AND WATER POLLUTION COMBATED?

Various dust-filters are used. Parks and gardens are laid out in factory zones. Forest shelter belts of fruit and other trees are planted over hundreds of hectares of land around the towns. Systems of drains, purifying installations and filters are used to prevent industrial waste from polluting natural reservoirs. The management of each industrial enterprise bears responsibility, and can be brought to trial for pollution of air and reservoirs. Offending enterprises are fined, which reduces the management's income and the bonus fund. In the USSR there are special laws to protect nature and provide stern punishment for offenders.

WHAT IS THE ANTI-NOISE SERVICE?

In big towns, offices and industrial enterprises, there is sometimes so much noise that it affects people's health. That is why war on noise has been declared. In the towns all transport is forbidden to use horns. Green belts separate the streets from the houses.

In Moscow there is a special anti-noise station. Its main object is to achieve maximum quiet. Groups of engineers in cars equipped with special measuring instruments go to factories, offices and streets. They establish sources of excessive noise and work out measures to abolish or reduce it. Similar anti-noise laboratories or sections function in some other cities, too.

CAN ONE HIRE THINGS?

Each town has a number of hire stations where for a moderate fee one can hire a camera, a fishing tackle, a pneumatic boat, a car, an accordion, a radio and many other useful items.

The daily rate for camera hire is 0.3 per cent of the shop price, typewriter hire 0.4 per cent, vacuum-cleaner 0.6 per cent, coffee-set 0.8 per cent, tape-recorder 0.3 per cent. If certain items are hired for over six days, fees are progressively smaller.

In 1965 there were about 6,400 hire stations and 1.6 million people used their services.

CAN THINGS BE ORDERED IN ADVANCE?

Yes, they can, and the practice is becoming more widespread. Air and train tickets can be booked in advance, and they will be delivered on the required date. Books may be ordered by leaving a postcard in a bookshop. Long-distance telephone calls, restaurant tables and food from grocery and provision shops may be reserved or ordered in advance. In fact, the central grocery and provision shops in Moscow, Leningrad, Odessa, Tallinn and other cities have a service by which people in Sakhalin or the Arctic can order anything ranging from Georgian lemons and Pacific caviar to French or Armenian cognac for their friends or relatives.

WHAT IS THE HOME-COOKING SERVICE?

This service is run by state public catering establishments to lighten everyday life and release the housewife from kitchen drudgery. These establishments are usually located in large blocks of flats. It does not take more than a few minutes to get breakfast, lunch or dinner prepared by skilled cooks. The menu offers a choice of scores of dishes at reasonable prices. In 1966 there were more than 160,000 of these establishments, and their number is rapidly increasing.

IS PREPARED BABY FOOD AVAILABLE?

Each of the tens of thousands of children's clinics and consultation centres has a milk kitchen, which prepares food for children as prescribed by doctors. This, as well as additional food, is issued free of charge for babies whose mothers, for one reason or another, are unable to feed them. This system is run by the Ministry of Public Health of the USSR.

Dried milk, various canned foods, fruit and vegetable mixtures, porridge and many other products are made at factories. They are sold at special shops or departments in the big grocery and provision shops. Some factories—the food plant in Moscow, for example—specialise in baby foods. It produces 5,000 tins of various food.

At nurseries and kindergartens food for children is prepared in accordance with required standards under medical supervision.

HOW DOES ADVERTISING FIT INTO SOVIET SOCIETY?

Soviet advertising is modest and unobtrusive. Advertisements do not startle or mislead, but they attract attention. Many mediums are used: shop windows, special stands, roadside posters, posters on the walls of buildings, neon lights. Advertising is carried on in the press, by radio and TV and in the cinema. There are advertising departments in the most diverse organisations—from Aeroflot to the State Bank and the smallest cinema.

The ads printed in newspapers and magazines and broadcast by radio are paid for by the organisations and trading establishments advertising services and goods.

However, Soviet advertising does not go in for «soap operas». Only strictly limited time is assigned for advertisements in radio and TV programmes. No programme may be interrupted for advertisements.

Health Service

HOW IS THE PUBLIC HEALTH SYSTEM ORGANISED?

In the Soviet Union the public health system is operated by the state, which finances all forms of medical assistance, public health and anti-epidemic services, trains medical personnel and directs their work. The 1967 budget allocations for public health totalled 7,300 million roubles, over seven per cent of the total State Budget.

The reason these allocations are so great is that practically all forms of medical assistance are free.

The entire medical service is run by the Ministry of Public Health of the USSR, Ministries of Public Health of the Union and Autonomous Republics, and public health departments at regional, town and district Soviets of Working People's Deputies. General management in the sphere of medical scientific work is in the hands of the Ministry of Public Health and its scientific council. The elaboration of scientific research programmes and their coordination is carried out by the Academy of Medical Sciences of the USSR.

WHAT IS THE AVERAGE LIFE EXPECTANCY IN THE USSR?

For women it is 74 years and for men 66. The average life expectancy is rising: in 1896-97 it was 32 years, in 1926-27 it rose to 44 years, and in 1964-65 to 70 years.

HOW MANY DOCTORS IN THE USSR?

There are 580,000 doctors or 25 doctors per 10,000 inhabitants. This is more than a quarter of the world's doctors and half the number in Europe. By way of comparison in the USA there were 18.6 doctors per 10,000 people (1964 figures), in the Federal Republic of Germany 19.3 (1965), in France 15.4 (1964) and in Turkey 3.3 (1963).

Every year 26,000 people graduate from the country's medical institutes.

In addition to medical personnel trained at universities and colleges, the Soviet Union has nearly 2,000,000 junior medical personnel. Three-fourths of all Soviet doctors are women.

In 1958-66 the number of doctors increased by 181,500. By 1970 the country will have 695,000 doctors.

HOW MANY HOSPITALS IN THE USSR?

There are 28,000 hospitals (excluding military hospitals) with accommodation for about 2.3 million people (99 beds per 10,000 inhabitants). The largest number of beds is for therapeutical patients (over 435,000).

Every two years the hospitals increase the number of beds by approximately 200,000, which was the total number of beds available to patients in 1913. In 1970 the total number of hospital beds will amount to 2,680,000.

Besides hospitals, there are over 40,000 clinics and out-patient departments. These medical establishments handle over 1,500 million cases a year. In addition, in rural localities there are nearly 100,000 first-aid and midwife stations, and at factories and building projects more than 7,000 first-aid and medical stations.

WHO GUARANTEES THE QUALITY OF MEDICINES?

It is practically impossible for poor-quality medicine to reach the consumer. The pharmaceutical industry is run by the state. It has no interest in creating sensations or making profit. Every new medicine is tested at special state clinics, and, before reaching the consumer, has to be passed by Pharmacological Committee of the USSR Ministry of Public Health consisting of prominent scientists and specialists.

Medicines are sold in pharmacies or chemist's shops. Some medicines can only be bought with a doctor's prescription. In rural localities there is one chemist's shop to every 6,000 inhabitants, and in towns one to 10,000-15,000 inhabitants. Besides these shops, there are pharmacies at all hospitals and clinics.

Between 1959 and 1965 more than 5,000 new pharmacies were opened throughout the country. The production of medicines has gone up 2.8 times. Today 130 enterprises produce more than 5,000 types of medicines, instruments and apparatus.

By 1970 the medical industry will produce 70 per cent more drugs than in 1965.

In the USSR the state pays for more than 40 per cent of all medicines produced, this covers the cost of medicines at hospitals where they are given to the patients free of charge. Those suffering from tuberculosis, schizophrenia, epilepsy and other diseases receive medicine free of charge even during out-patient treatment.

The state allocates considerable sums to cover the cost of making certain medicines. That is why in the USSR prices for expensive drugs are much lower than in a great number of countries.

WHAT IS AN URBAN DISTRICT CLINIC?

It is a medical establishment where people can get special assistance and also call a doctor to their homes. Large clinics (1st category) can handle 1,600 patients a day, and small ones (5th category) can receive 400 patients a day. As a rule, a clinic has departments in all medical specialties and also diagnosis and treatment rooms and laboratories. If a district does not have specialised child and mater-

nity consultation centres, such centres will be found in the nearest clinic.

Every clinic serves a definite territorial unit, which varies in size. Statistics show that every town-dweller pays an average of 10 visits to a clinic a year.

The district served by a clinic is divided into areas of about 4,000 people. Every sector has a nurse and a physician, who spends part of his six-hour working day receiving patients at the clinic and the rest of the time visiting patients in their homes. When people need a specialist, they usually arrange for it through their physician, but they can also go directly to the specialist. There are approximately seven specialists for every area. In the towns the clinics work in two shifts, the doctors work some days in the first shift and some days in the second.

WHAT IS A RURAL CLINIC?

In contrast to a town clinic, a rural clinic is usually part of a rural hospital, which serves both out-patients and in-patients.

Rural hospitals are sited so as to serve a radius of not more than five or six kilometres. As a rule, the hospital and clinic are in the district centre and have doctors in all specialities. Aside from the therapeutical and maternity departments there are usually departments for children, infectious diseases and TB patients. A clinic at a rural hospital has approximately the same departments, surgeries and laboratories as an urban clinic. Hamlets far from district centres have their own hospitals with 10 to 50 beds and a limited number of specialists (a therapist, a surgeon, a paediatrist and a specialist in infectious diseases). Collective and state farms have medical stations, each served by a doctor's assistant and a midwife.

WHAT IS THE ROLE OF A VISITING NURSE?

They keep patients under constant supervision at their homes, but mostly they watch over the health of expectant mothers, babies and mothers, and invalids. Like all forms of medical assistance, this service is free.

WHAT EMPHASIS IS PLACED ON DISEASE PREVENTION?

Disease prevention is the principal purpose of Soviet medicine. Infectious diseases are combated by the public health service. Mass medical check-ups on the health of the population, particularly of children, are held regularly. This allows diseases to be detected in their initial stages and effective measures to be taken against them. Extensive work in this field is being done by the out-patient clinics and specialised medical establishments.

Clinics keep systematic watch over the health of certain categories of people: expectant mothers, children (they are examined monthly under one year of age, once in three months between one and three years and not less than twice a year until they leave school), vocational school pupils, working teen-agers, working people exposed to danger of occupational diseases, people suffering from stomach or duodenal ulcer, high blood pressure and others.

There are TB, psychoneurological, dermatological-and-venereal disease, oncological, trachomatous, anti-goitre and other health centres that systematically watch over people suffering from chronic diseases regardless of whether or not they come for medical assistance. Like out-patient clinics, health centres can be found in every territorial unit. Altogether there are more than 3,000 of them. They usually have hospitals which can accommodate a definite number of cases. Health centres offer all types of medical assistance; they arrange for dietetic meals and send patients to sanatoriums, help obtain better working conditions and housing for them, provide legal aid. The patients are given medical assistance until they have fully recovered.

Considerable sums of money are allocated from the budget for disease prevention. All vaccinations against small-pox, diphtheria, polio and other diseases are free.

Soviet medical workers reject the argument that, because it allows weak organisms to survive, disease prevention leads to the degeneration of the human race. They regard disease prevention as a proved means of radically improving the health of present and future generations.

HOW ARE EMERGENCY AND AMBULANCE SERVICES ORGANISED?

An ambulance bearing the red cross on its windshield and sides answers a call, put through directly or by dialling 03, within three minutes. In rural localities the maximum time that people have to wait for an ambulance is five minutes as a rule. A doctor helped by a surgeon's assistant and an attendant renders medical assistance on the spot, or takes the patient to the nearest hospital. When it is not an emergency, the call is answered by the first-aid service at clinics which works round the clock.

First-aid stations (with less than 8,000 calls a year) are organised at hospitals as departments. Stations with a larger number of calls operate as independent units.

In the USSR there are about 2,300 emergency-aid and first-aid service stations with more than ten thousand ambulances. More than 34 million people receive annually first aid.

Compared with this, in 1913 there were only 9 emergency-aid stations.

Ambulances are fitted with two-way radio-telephone communication that allows them to keep in contact with their bases and hospitals.

There are also special ambulances that are fitted with apparatus for artificial respiration and anaesthesia, electric heart stimulators, video cardiographs and other apparatus providing for most urgent assistance on the spot or en route to the hospital. In regional centres these stations have ambulance aircraft, including helicopters which serve remote localities. Every year emergency-station doctors make some 100,000 flights, perform some 12,000 operations and give consultation to more than half a million patients. Wherever man is in trouble he will immediately be given qualified medical aid and if necessary is taken to hospital, and all this is free of charge.

Special institutes study scientific problems linked with the organisation of emergency aid and treatment of injuries sustained in the street or at home. One of the best known institutes is in Moscow; it bears the name of the noted Russian doctor, Nikolai Sklifosovsky.

HOW IS THE SANITARY SERVICE ORGANISED?

In the USSR the state-run, sanitary-epidemiological service is a reliable instrument for protecting public health.

The chief task of the anti-epidemic service is to improve from the point of sanitation the living and working conditions of the population, to prevent the breaking out of infectious diseases and combat occupational diseases.

Each administrative region has a special station staffed with epidemiological experts, sanitary inspectors and technicians. These stations take steps to prevent industrial enterprises from polluting the air, rivers and reservoirs, and to make sure that sanitation and hygienic rules are observed with regard to water-supply and sewerage systems in municipal enterprises, hairdressing parlours, bath-houses, laundries, medical establishments, grocery and provision shops, canteens, cafes, meat-packing plants, canneries, theatres, cinemas, clubs, railway stations and landing piers.

Public health doctors, responsible for sanitation and hygiene, have the right to stop the work of any enterprise violating health rules and to dismiss from work temporarily or permanently all disease-carriers or persons who have had contact with them, call to account or fine people violating health rules and to remove low-grade food products from sale.

These doctors give talks and advice on public health with the help of the Health Education Houses in regional and district centres, and the public. 36,300 doctors and 90,000 medical assistants are engaged in the country's public health service.

In 1966 the country had nearly 5,000 disease and epidemic prevention stations. These stations are run by the chief public health service doctors of the Autonomous Republics and of regions and towns under the supervision of the Ministry of Public Health of the USSR and parallel Ministries in the Union Republics.

WHAT SPECIAL MEDICAL ESTABLISHMENTS ARE THERE FOR WOMEN?

These are mainly women's consultation centres, maternity homes, sanatoriums for expectant mothers, health stations at factories and offices, midwife and gynaecological institutes and so on. Free medical attention for expectant mothers, for mothers after childbirth and for women suffering from gynaecological ailments is provided by 19,700 special women's consultation centres, which also supervise working conditions for women at industrial enterprises, provide advice and information on hygiene. Before the October Revolution there were only nine women's consultation centres in the country.

In town and country all expectant mothers receive medical attention during childbirth. In the USSR there are more than 36,000 gynaecologists and over 250,000 obstetricians and trained midwives; the maternity homes and midwife stations gave accommodation to about 230,000 women, and are able to handle all the births in the country. Compared with pre-revolutionary times the mortality-rate among expectant mothers and women in childbirth decreased more than 15-fold and continues to fall.

Soviet doctors have worked out new methods of ensuring painless childbirth—prenatal care combined with the psychological preparation of expectant mothers which ensures the tranquillity of women in childbirth, often relieves pains and quickens the process of childbirth. Today this method is used for nearly 80 per cent of the births in towns and more than 50 per cent in rural districts. It is becoming popular in many other countries.

Big factories employing many women have women's consultation centres with gynaecologists. There are specialised mother and child sanatoriums for expectant mothers and women with children, and 14 maternity and child protection, obstetrical and gynaecological research institutes.

ARE ABORTIONS LEGAL?

Yes, if the pregnancy is not over three months and the abortion is performed by a physician at a medical establishment. If pregnancy is more than three months a careful exami-

nation is required at a medical institution. In such cases abortions are permitted if it is found that the continuation of the pregnancy and childbirth would harm the health of the woman concerned. Any abortion performed outside a medical establishment is regarded as illegal. All persons, except the expectant mother, performing such an abortion are punished by law.

WHAT MEDICAL INSTITUTIONS ARE THERE FOR CHILDREN?

Consultation centres, clinics, hospitals and sanatoriums.

The consultation centres look after children in the area up to the age of three. They regularly examine healthy children and treat sick children both in specialised departments and at home, teach mothers how to protect their children's health, vaccinate children against smallpox, tuberculosis, diphtheria, polio and the like, and supervise the work of the infant-feeding centres where mothers receive supplementary food for babies.

After children have reached the age of three, they are looked after by the district clinic up to the age of 14, or until they finish school. Children's clinics also render medical assistance at home.

Children requiring hospitalisation are sent to children's hospitals, those in need of prolonged treatment and rest are sent to forest schools. In some places, particularly in rural localities, children's consultation centres, clinics and hospitals are merged into one institution.

Of the 2,300,000 beds in Soviet hospitals in 1966, over 360,000 were intended for children. They are attended by over 70,000 doctors. Moreover, there are nearly 1,150 sanatoriums of various types accommodating 135,000 children and many forest schools where delicate children study under constant medical supervision.

Research work in child health protection is conducted by special pediatric institutes and the corresponding departments of medical institutes.

Infant mortality has decreased nearly tenfold as compared with pre-revolutionary Russia. As years go by children become stronger, taller and healthier. For example in 1958-

59 fourteen-year-old Moscow boys weighed 8 kilogrammes more and were 10 centimetres taller than boys of the same age in 1925.

HOW IS MEDICAL TRAINING AND RESEARCH ORGANISED?

In the USSR there are nearly 90 medical institutions of higher learning: special higher schools and medical departments of universities with an enrolment of more than 220,000 students.

Every year more than 26,000 doctors and some 3,000 pharmacists graduate from Soviet higher medical schools. The term of study in pharmaceutical and stomatological institutes and faculties is five years, in all other medical faculties of higher educational institutions — six years.

According to the regulations all doctors are obliged to attend special courses to improve their qualification: rural doctors—once every three years, those working in towns and cities—once every five years.

There are 13 institutions and 14 departments concerned with the specialisation of doctors and the improvement of their qualifications. Annually they train more than 50,000 medical specialists.

The highest form of raising the qualification of doctors is the two-year individual course at a clinic. Every year to 6,500 doctors take these courses.

Junior medical personnel are trained in 630 medical schools in three-year courses. Their student body numbers 350,500. Over 75,000 graduate from them annually.

All medical educational institutions are financed by the state. All training is free of charge. Students are granted stipends. All graduates are given work in their field of specialisation.

Scientific work in medicine is carried on by more than 300 scientific-research institutes and laboratories, practically all medical higher schools and medical and health protection establishments.

Scientific personnel are trained at post-graduate courses, which also include training by correspondence. Altogether

about 50,000 scientists are engaged in medical research including 3,200 Doctors and about 20,000 Masters of Science (Medicine).

Extensive work is carried on by scientific societies which unite specialists: surgeons, therapists, oncologists, etc. Soviet medical science has numerous achievements to its credit in physiology, biochemistry, virology, hygiene, health protection and clinical methods of analysis and investigation. Cosmic medicine is also making headway.

ARE THERE HOMEOPATHS?

Yes, large towns have homeopathic clinics and pharmacies, which are very popular. No restriction is placed on the practice of homeopaths trained at medical colleges. At the same time, most Soviet scientists regard this trend in medicine as obsolete stemming from erroneous theoretical propositions. Some homeopathic remedies, based chiefly on folk pharmacopoeia, are, however, generally recognised.

HOW IS HEALTH SERVICE ORGANISED AT FACTORIES?

Big factories (employing over 4,000 wage and salary earners) have medical and hygiene departments, whose chief doctors are, essentially, the manager's medical deputies. Medical and hygiene departments actually comprise a clinic, hospital and prophylactic sanatorium, nurseries and kindergartens, a women's consultation centre and first-aid stations in the workshops. In the coal, oil, oil-refining, mineralogical and chemical industries such departments are set up at enterprises employing more than 2,000 workers.

Enterprises employing more than 800 workers (more than 500 in the coal, oil, mineralogical and chemical industries) have health centres managed by doctors and enterprises with more than 300 workers or individual workshops of large enterprises have first-aid stations. These stations are engaged in preventing disease and render first-aid services. Treatment is received in clinics and hospitals.

The organisation of health services at enterprises is based on the workshop principle. Doctors for the health stations in workshops are appointed by the medical and hygiene department of the enterprise, they examine the workers of their shop at the factory clinic, treat their patients in the factory hospital and carry on extensive work to prevent and cut down diseases among workers and improve their health. Together with the doctors of the public health and anti-epidemic stations they supervise the sanitary condition of the factory canteens, showers, locker-rooms and ventilation system, and take steps to improve working conditions. They systematically examine (*en masse* or selectively) workers and employees for occupational or other diseases.

More than 33,000 doctors are employed at factories and mills throughout the country. The hospitals and disease-prevention centres run by factories and mills have over 140,000 beds. The medical and hygiene departments and first-aid stations operate in close contact with trade union and Red Cross and Red Crescent organisations. They are financed and supervised by public health authorities.

To achieve all-round improvement of working conditions and protect the workers' health each enterprise works out an annual complex plan of health-improvement measures which is approved by the manager and the trade union committee. The chief provisions of this plan are included in the collective labour agreement.

HOW IS SANATORIUM TREATMENT ORGANISED?

When sanatorium treatment is deemed advisable the applicant is examined (at the local clinic or out-patient department) by a special sanatorium-spa selection commission. It recommends the type of sanatorium, and the time and length of treatment. After having the forms signed by the sanatorium-spa commission, people apply to their trade union or the board of a collective farm for accommodation at the recommended sanatorium. In the overwhelming majority of cases (80 per cent) these facilities are provided at a very moderate charge (30 per cent of the cost) or free of charge.

WHAT TYPES OF SANATORIUMS DOES THE USSR HAVE?

Sanatoriums are grouped according to their specialisation: lung diseases, bone and skin tuberculosis, heart, gastric, nervous and women's ailments. There are 15 types of specialised sanatoriums. There are also general sanatoriums for people requiring rest under medical observation—for example, after a grave illness or due to their general state of health. In the USSR there are about 2,200 sanatoriums with accommodation for 3 million people.

Some sanatoriums work all year round and others are only in season. Most of them are in health resorts—places with natural curative factors (mineral springs, medicinal muds, salubrious climate, the sea). The USSR has over 500 health resorts with a variety of therapeutic resources.

Disease-prevention centres, or night sanatoriums as they are called, also enjoy widespread popularity. People requiring medical observation and special diet go to these sanatoriums after work. To help people feel fit there are more than 800 holiday homes, where nearly 4 million people vacation every year.

There are many world-famous health resorts in the Soviet Union. These include Sochi, Gagra, and Yalta on the Black Sea; Borzhomi, Kislovodsk, Yessentuki and Tskhaltubo in the Caucasian Mountains; Borovoye (Kazakhstan) and Shaf-rannoye (Bashkiria) which specialise in mare's milk treatment, Zelenogorsk (near Leningrad) and the children's resorts of Yevpatoria and Anapa on the Black Sea.

HOW IS TUBERCULOSIS COMBATED?

At one time consumption was the most prevalent disease in the country. Today cases of tuberculosis are becoming rare. From 1950 to 1965 the TB sick-rate in the towns was reduced threefold (bone and joint tuberculosis was reduced fourfold).

Anti-tuberculosis vaccination was started in 1924. Since 1934 all new-born babies are vaccinated. This has reduced the possibility of people contracting TB fivefold or sixfold. Since 1948, anti-tuberculosis vaccination has been made compulsory for all healthy children, juveniles, pupils of secondary technical schools, students and in 1961, for all

employees of medical establishments and some other professions up to the age of 30.

The entire adult population undergoes a compulsory medical check-up once every two years. For juveniles and some groups of adults (working for instance in children's institutions, food industry, canteens) there is a yearly check-up. In 1965 104.4 million people were examined. If a person does fall ill with tuberculosis, his illness is not a personal matter. He is compelled to receive treatment at an out-patient clinic, a hospital or a sanatorium, and is provided with all the necessary material requirements.

TB patients are given every opportunity to get medical attention and have treatment at a sanatorium for a period of four to ten months, during which time they receive sick pay amounting to from 50 to 90 per cent of their wages or salaries depending on the time worked. Their jobs are kept for them. The country has 6,500 TB clinics, 450,000 beds in specialised hospitals and sanatoriums.

All children and juveniles with TB are treated at a sanatorium-type medical institutions until they have fully recovered. Children in the initial stages of tuberculosis or convalescing are cared for in specialised, sanatorium-type nurseries, kindergartens or boarding schools.

Under Soviet law TB patients receive private living quarters.

WHAT IS BEING DONE TO REDUCE HEART AFFLICTIONS?

The principal measure consists of regular mass preventive examinations to diagnose heart and vascular diseases early.

People suffering from quinsy, sinusitis and other cronic diseases of the ear, nose and throat are kept under careful medical observation. Serious cases are hospitalised. Doctors are charged with the duty of checking the heart and lungs of all patients, regardless of their disease. All clinics have special cardio-rheumatological departments. Departments for cardio-rheumatic patients have been organised in clinics and out-patient clinics have been set up as an experi-

ment in some of the big towns. There are special sanatoriums for cardio-vascular patients, particularly for people suffering from rheumatism.

New methods of treating vessels of the heart and brain which consist in the active dissolution of blood clots and a restoration surgical operation have been worked out. Thoracic surgery and surgery of the heart are now widely employed. An increasing number of drugs regulating cardio-vascular activity are being produced.

Better and healthier working conditions, lighter work through the use of automatic and other machines, reduction of noise at work places and in the streets, the campaign against smoking and drinking and dissemination of knowledge about balanced diets and rules of personal hygiene all contribute to minimising the incidence of the cardio-vascular disease.

In the USSR the percentage of people who suffer or die from this disease is less than in the USA, Britain and other developed capitalist countries.

WHAT IS BEING DONE TO COMBAT CANCER?

World medicine has not yet developed any reliable method of treating advanced stages of cancer. Scientists are working on this problem. For that reason special attention is given to the prevention and early diagnosis of cancer. This is done through mass examinations. All patients over thirty years of age on entering any medical establishment irrespective of their illness are checked for pre-tumoural conditions. People with pre-tumoural conditions are registered at special oncological out-patient clinics which employ all modern methods for combating cancer in its early stages. In 1965, 68 million people were examined.

In addition to special oncological out-patient departments, hospitals and institutes, there are oncological departments and treatment rooms at most general hospitals and clinics. These institutions use pharmacological, surgical, radiation and combined methods of treating malignant tumours. New chemical-therapeutical drugs are being developed and tried on an increasing scale; wide use is being made of antibiotics to prevent tumours. Results have been

very promising. The Institute of Experimental and Clinical Oncology the biggest in Europe and Asia, has been built in Moscow. Altogether the country has 22 scientific-research institutes and a large number of clinics and laboratories working on all aspects of modern oncology.

A great deal is being done to remove the influence of cancerogenous substances. A special committee set up by the Ministry of Public Health of the USSR is studying carcinogenic properties of various ingredients used in industry and agriculture for the preparation and storage of foods and in each new medicine. Where there is any doubt about a medicine, its sale is prohibited. The committee works out methods of eliminating the danger of air pollution from cancerogenous factory smoke and preventing dangerous waste from reaching reservoirs. The practical danger of occupational forms of malignant tumours has been brought down to the minimum. Soviet achievements in oncology have won wide acclaim. N. Blokhin, a renowned Soviet scientist, has been appointed Chairman of the International Union for Combating Cancer.

WHAT IS BEING DONE AGAINST POLIO?

Compulsory mass vaccination of the population is conducted by public health bodies every year. The polio vaccine developed in 1959-60 by Soviet scientists Chumakov and Smorodintsev from a culture invented by American scientist Albert B. Sabin was given to more than 100 million people in the Soviet Union in 1960. A total of more than 200 million repeat vaccinations have been given since then.

The vaccine is given in the form of a sweet pill. It is rarely injected. No epidemic outbreaks have been observed since 1959. Mass vaccinations have reduced the incidence of polio to isolated cases.

The Soviet polio vaccine is inexpensive and the method of making it is simple, although it requires strict adherence to instructions. In the four years since 1959 the USSR has exported 153 million doses of vaccine to 26 countries.

Pasterisation of milk supplied to children's institutions is another important prophylactic measure. Persons who have had contact with polio cases are not allowed in children's institutions for a period of 20 days.

Methods of eliminating the consequences of polio are being developed and applied. This consists in complex treatment involving drugs, surgery, mud-baths, therapeutic-physical culture with massage, etc. The USSR has special sanatoriums where aftermaths of polio are treated. Like all medical services, there is no charge for this.

WHAT MEASURES ARE BEING TAKEN AGAINST INFECTIOUS DISEASES?

Cholera, plague, smallpox, malaria and typhoid fever have been eradicated in the USSR, and the incidences of polio, diphtheria, whooping cough, scarlet fever, venereal diseases, tuberculosis, tetanus, brucellosis have dropped sharply. Social and specific sanitary measures are being taken against infectious diseases. The standard of living has been radically improved. The bulk of the population now lives in clean and spacious dwellings, uses purified running water, and eats good food prepared from germ-free products which are regularly checked at shops, markets and dining-rooms by special state health inspectors. Swamps, the sources of malaria and other tropical diseases, have been drained, and city slums, the seats of epidemics, have been removed.

The specific medical measures include mass general and selective compulsory vaccinations against diphtheria, scarlet fever, smallpox, enteric fever, dysentery. In the Soviet Union doctors have to report every case of infectious disease to one of the many special public health stations. There are numerous isolation hospitals and wards for patients suffering from infectious diseases.

The scale and effectiveness of the sanitary epidemiological service were demonstrated during the Second World War, when, despite difficult living conditions, particularly in areas near the front-line and in places overcrowded with evacuees, there was not a single epidemic. After the war, in 1960, there was a brief outbreak of smallpox, which had been brought into the USSR from abroad. This outbreak was quickly wiped out. The operation, under which all persons who had contact with smallpox patients were found

and isolated, and personal effects and houses disinfected, was carried out so swiftly that this dangerous disease did not spread. Seven million people were vaccinated in seven days.

HAVE THERE BEEN ANY NEW DEVELOPMENTS IN PROSTHETICS?

Perhaps the most successful development in this field is the «electric hand» which is operated by means of bio-currents in human muscles. This hand does almost everything that a real hand can do. It has a reverse communication device which allows the wearer to feel how it grips an object. These artificial hands are now being mass-produced. Great Britain and Canada have acquired the Soviet licence to manufacture prosthesis with bioelectrical control.

The «electric hand» was the prototype of a new form of artificial limb, which gives the wearer a sense of touch and temperature.

This, of course, is only one of the latest achievements in prosthetics. The Soviet Union has several prosthesis research institutes and many factories, which supply invalids with various types of modern artificial limbs free of charge.

CAN A DOCTOR HAVE A PRIVATE PRACTICE?

Yes, a doctor with a properly equipped surgery in his home is allowed to practise privately. He pays a tax on his earnings. There are a few state clinics where patients pay to see a doctor. The fee is one rouble per visit.

Some forms of medical activity are forbidden to private practitioners. These include treatment by hypnosis and surgical operations, except in emergency cases. In the USSR there is very little private practice because state medical assistance is free.

UNDER WHAT CONDITIONS DOES A FOREIGNER OBTAIN MEDICAL ASSISTANCE?

Just as for Soviet citizens medical service is free for foreigners. It can be obtained in hotels, in the home or at the nearest clinic or out-patient department. If necessary, a foreigner is hospitalised, with his or her consent.

WHAT ARE THE VITAL STATISTICS FOR THE USSR?

The mortality rate is one of the general indices of the standard of living. Today the USSR has the lowest death rate in the world.

To compare the death rate indices of different countries for the five years (1961-65), the following picture (per thousand people) is obtained: the USSR — 7.2; Japan — 7.2; the Netherlands — 7.9; Australia — 8.7; Finland — 9.3; the USA — 9.4; Italy — 9.9; Sweden — 10.0; the FRG — 11.1; France — 11.2; Great Britain — 11.8; Belgium — 12.2; Austria — 12.6.

The birth rate indices (per thousand people) are as follows: the USSR — 21.1; the USA — 21.5; Australia — 21.3; the Netherlands — 20.7; Italy — 19.1; Austria — 18.5; Great Britain — 18.4; the FRG — 18.3; France — 18.0; Japan — 17.5; Belgium — 17.0.

The natural increase of population in the five years (per thousand people) amounts to: in the USSR — 13.9; Australia — 12.6; the USA — 12.1; Japan — 10.3; Italy — 9.2; the FRG — 7.2; France — 6.8; Great Britain — 6.6.

WHAT MEDICAL ASSISTANCE DOES THE USSR PROVIDE TO OTHER COUNTRIES?

The USSR has assisted the following countries in the construction of hospitals: Burma, Cambodia, Cuba, the Chinese People's Republic, the Democratic Republic of Vietnam, Ethiopia, Guinea, Indonesia, Iran, the Korean People's Democratic Republic, Nepal and Somalia.

Soviet doctors work in Burma, Ethiopia, Guinea, India, Mali, Yemen and in a number of other countries.

Besides the usual medical services Soviet doctors combat epidemic diseases, train medical specialists from among the local population and help the developing countries to organise modern health services.

The USSR renders extensive aid to many countries in event of epidemics and natural calamities. Between 1960 and 1966 the USSR supplied gratis up to 1,000 million doses of smallpox vaccine to India, Iran, Afghanistan, Burma, Zambia and other countries. In 1966 alone the USSR provided

free of charge 1.5 million doses of diphtheria and tetanus antitoxin to the Cameroons, one million doses of polio vaccine to Uganda, one million doses of cholera vaccine to Iraq.

The USSR renders assistance to many developing countries in the training of national medical specialists. Thousands of students and post-graduates from abroad study medicine at Soviet educational establishments, with all expenses for tuition and boarding paid by the USSR.

Social Security and Insurance

WHAT IS PENSIONS SCALE AND WHO RECEIVES THEM?

«Citizens of the USSR have the right to maintenance in old age and also in case of sickness or disability.

«This right is ensured by the extensive development of social insurance of industrial, office, and professional workers at state expense,» says Article 120 of the Constitution of the USSR. This right is enjoyed by all Soviet citizens irrespective of race, nationality, sex and denomination.

There are different kinds of pensions: old-age, disability, loss of breadwinner, long-service and personal pensions.

State pensions are paid to wage and salary earners, servicemen, students of higher and specialised secondary schools and colleges, and to citizens who have been disabled in the line of state or public duty. Families who have lost the breadwinner are also eligible for pensions.

The size of the pension depends directly on the wage or salary and on the length of service. Moreover, the size of the pension depends on working conditions: wage and salary earners engaged in underground, noxious or arduous work are eligible for additional benefits. Persons with a

long record of work are eligible for higher pensions. The pensioner's family status also counts. An average pension amounts to 60—70 per cent of one's wages or salary. In some cases it is the full 100 per cent. All pensions are exempt from taxation.

WHAT IS THE PROCEDURE FOR GRANTING A PENSION?

Pensions are granted by special commissions, made up of representatives of state authorities and trade unions and set up by the district (town) Soviets of Working People's Deputies. All big factories, offices, organisations and state farms have trade union pension commissions. These commissions draw up the necessary papers, see to it that the management provides invalids with work in conformity with the recommendations of a medical and labour commission, and help pensioners to improve their housing and living conditions. The commissions take up all questions concerning social security and insurance.

DO PENSIONERS GET ADDITIONAL HELP IF THEY HAVE DEPENDENTS WHO ARE UNABLE TO WORK?

Yes, they do. Unemployed pensioners with dependents unable to work get what is known as a family allowance, which comes to 10 per cent of their nominal pension (if there is one person incapacitated) and 15 per cent (if there are two or more persons).

WHAT ARE LONG-SERVICE INCREMENTS TO PENSIONS?

A person with an unbroken service record of 15 years (at any period of his employment), or with a total service record of 10 years in excess of the old-age pension period is entitled to a ten per cent increase in pension.

DO WORKING PEOPLE CONTRIBUTE TO THE PENSION FUND?

They do not. The pensions fund is made up entirely of compulsory contributions from the state, cooperative enterprises and organisations.

HOW MUCH DOES THE STATE PAY TO PENSIONERS?

The sum paid to pensioners in 1967 was 11,200 million roubles.

WHAT CONCERN DOES THE STATE SHOW FOR OLD PEOPLE?

Men become eligible for pensions at the age of 60 and women at the age of 55. To receive a pension men must work for at least 25 years and women for 20 years. It is not difficult to acquire the right to get a pension in a country like the Soviet Union where no unemployment exists. Army service and the term of elective office are counted.

The state shows special concern for mothers. Women who have reared five or more children to the age of eight are eligible for a pension at the age of 50, with a 15-year work record.

The law has established high old-age pensions: they range from 50 to 100 per cent of wages or salaries, while for people who work underground, in hot shops or on arduous jobs (this category is pensionable at the age of 45-55), pensions range from 55 to 100 per cent of the wage or salary. It should be noted that a higher percentage is paid to those in the lower income brackets. Larger pensions are paid for unbroken service and when the pensioner has dependents.

Sometimes a pensioner finds that he can no longer look after himself: he either has no family or, for some reason, does not live with his family. Such a person, if he so desires, can live in one of the many special boarding homes where he will be provided for by the state. More than 250,000 aged and lonely people live in these homes, where they are surrounded with care and attention. As a rule, these homes are built in pleasant suburban localities.

WHAT STATE CARE DO INVALIDS RECEIVE?

Depending on the degree of disability, invalids are divided into three categories. In each case the category is determined by a medical and labour commission, consisting of doctors and representatives of trade unions and social insurance bodies.

Disability pensions are granted regardless of age. In cases where a person has become disabled due to occupational disease, injury at work, when fulfilling his public or civic duties, the length of service is not taken into consideration. In all other cases a person must have a service record, even if it is a short one.

A man of 20-23 must have worked for at least two years; 23-31 years of age from 3-5 years: for women, one and two-three years respectively.

The amount of pensions differs. It depends first of all, on the category of disablement: the first category receives the highest pension. Second, it depends on wages or salaries and on working conditions. Account is taken of the fact that for third category invalids the pension compensates for a partial loss of wages or salaries, while for second and first categories it is the main source of livelihood.

People incapacitated by an industrial accident or occupational disease get higher pensions. Besides that compensation is paid by the enterprise where the injury or disability was sustained which, together with the pension, should equal the loss in earnings.

Increments are also due for unbroken service and for dependents. A first category invalid gets a 15 per cent increment to pay the persons attending him.

War invalids receive higher pensions.

WHO RECEIVES THE PENSION IN THE EVENT OF LOSS OF BREADWINNER?

This pension is paid to the family. This includes the children, brothers, sisters, grandchildren, mother and father, wife or husband, grandmother and grandfather. Any of these persons are entitled to a pension if they were dependent on the deceased and are unable to earn a living. Inability to earn one's living includes the state of one's health

(disability), age (advanced age or infancy and non-age) and family circumstances (caring for children under 8).

The amount of pension for the loss of breadwinner depends on the cause of death (it is higher in the case of industrial accident or occupational disease), working conditions, earnings and the number of dependents.

Increments are paid for three and more dependents and for an unbroken service record.

Orphaned children have priority in admission to kindergartens, creches and boarding schools. The deceased worker's trade union gives the children material assistance and provides free accommodation in summer and winter children's camps.

WHO GETS LONG-SERVICE PENSIONS?

These pensions are granted to people in certain professions for working the required period in their fields or profession. These include education and health workers, actors, flight personnel of the civil air fleet.

The size of pension granted after a certain period (20-30 years) depends on the pensioner's earnings.

WHAT ARE PERSONAL PENSIONS?

These are granted for outstanding services to the country.

Personal pension has several categories. Personal pensioners enjoy certain privileges. They receive their pensions in full regardless of whether they are working or not; they are given a 50 per cent discount on rent and public utilities such as electricity and gas; once a year they are entitled to free treatment at a sanatorium; they do not pay for public transport and receive an annual grant.

WHAT IS THE PENSION SYSTEM FOR COLLECTIVE FARMERS?

Collective farm chairmen, specialists with a higher or secondary education, accountants, machine operators and repairs and maintenance workers employed in agriculture are entitled to pensions and benefits in line with the procedure and rates established for factory and office workers. State pensions are also paid to peasants who are war inva-

lids, and grants are paid to mothers of large families and unwed mothers.

All other collective farmers receive pensions and benefits from an all-Union social security fund for collective farmers. This fund consists of annual contributions of collective farms which pay three to four per cent of their incomes and state allocations. Collective farmers, like factory and office workers, do not contribute a single kopeck to the social security fund. Like factory and office workers, collective farmers are entitled to pensions.

IS A PENSIONER ALLOWED TO WORK?

Yes, he is. The medical and labour commissions not only establish the category of disablement, but also decide what work an invalid can do without detriment to health. Disabled people unable to return to their old jobs can get training or learn a new trade at a vocational or technical school, with all expenses paid by the state. They are given jobs near the place of residence when they complete their training. People, who cannot work under normal conditions, are offered jobs at special shops and enterprises where they can do the work they are fit for with due regard for their physical abilities.

Able-bodied pensioners who so desire have the right to work after they have been granted old-age pensions. In addition to their wages, they get 50 per cent of the pension granted, or 75 per cent if the pensioner works in the Urals, Siberia or in the Far East. In all cases the sum must be no less than the minimum pension, i. e., 30 roubles per month.

Pensioners working in mines or other underground enterprises and those engaged in agriculture receive their full old-age pensions irrespective of their earnings.

Full pensions are also paid to pensioners working on temporary jobs, i. e. not more than for two months a year.

DO PENSIONERS ENJOY PRIVILEGES?

Invalids are entitled to free accommodation at a spa or sanatorium. Their transport expenses to and from the spa or rest home are paid by the state.

Some categories of pensioners get a 50 per cent discount on rent, heating, water, gas and electricity.

Special privileges are granted to war invalids and the families of servicemen killed while on duty. They enjoy priority in the distribution of housing and state credits for private housing construction. War invalids receive an interest-free loan for the construction of private houses of up to 1,000 roubles, to be paid back in 10 years beginning from the third year after receiving the loan. War invalids pay only 20 per cent of the cost of medicines prescribed by the doctor. Invalids of the first and second category and invalids of the third category who have lost a limb are entitled to free travel on all types of public transport except for taxis. War veterans who have lost a leg may receive, on the ruling of the medical and labour commissions, a free motorised chair or a microcar with hand controls.

HOW MANY PENSIONERS ARE THERE IN THE USSR?

In 1966 there were 32 million pensioners; of these 27 million were old-age pensioners, invalids, persons on retirement pension, and dependents who have lost their breadwinner. Five million were disabled war veterans and members of their families.

CAN A FOREIGNER GET A PENSION?

Under Soviet law, foreigners working in the Soviet Union and also their families are eligible for pensions. In cases where definite length of service is required, two-thirds of this service has to be completed in the USSR.

The Soviet Union has social insurance agreements with a number of countries: the German Democratic Republic, Hungary, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia and Rumania. Citizens of these countries permanently living in the USSR are granted pensions on the same terms as citizens of the USSR, no matter how long they have worked in the Soviet Union. If a citizen of one country moves permanently to another

country his pension is paid by the latter country in accordance with its law, no special settlement being made between the two states.

HOW IS SOCIAL INSURANCE ORGANISED?

It embraces almost all aspects of a person's life and benefits him from birth to old age. Social insurance is paid entirely by the state. The Soviet worker does not have to be insured against unemployment. There is no unemployment due to the socialist system of economy.

There is no need for the worker to insure himself against illness or disability, for under the Soviet system he is assured free medical aid and security in old age. Therefore, a major function of Soviet social insurance is to create the most favourable conditions for man's health and for wholesome recreation.

In 1959-65 the state spent nearly 60,000 million roubles on social insurance, aside from pensions and bonuses. This money was used to pay for free or easy-term accommodation at health and holiday homes for over 33 million people, for accommodation at summer camps for 28 million children.

Social insurance funds are used to pay cash allowances to wage and salary workers who have become temporarily incapacitated, for pre-natal and post-natal allowances to women, and for allowances at childbirth.

In allocating large sums of money for social insurance the state sees to it that this money is properly distributed. For that reason, all social insurance in the Soviet Union is administered by the trade unions, the biggest organisations of the working people.

HOW LARGE ARE TEMPORARY DISABLEMENT ALLOWANCES?

If a wage or salary earner falls ill he draws a temporary disablement allowance that ranges from 50 to 90 per cent of his wage or salary, depending on his length of service. Working war invalids get 90 per cent of their wage or salary regardless of their length of service. If the temporary disablement is caused by injury sustained at work or by an occupational disease, the person concerned gets his full wage or salary regardless of his length of service.

DO WORKING WOMEN RECEIVE MATERNITY GRANTS?

Expectant mothers receive a paid maternity leave of 112 days (56 days before childbirth and 56 days after childbirth). In the event of an abnormal birth or birth of two or more babies, post-natal leave is extended to 70 days. As a rule, the grant comes to 100 per cent of the wage or salary.

In November 1966, the USSR Council of Ministers granted all privileges due in case of childbirth to women who adopt children from a maternity home. They are entitled to a paid leave from the date of adoption for a period of 56 days after the child's birth, receive other benefits and may apply for an additional leave at their own expense. Their seniority is not affected in this case.

CAN ONE INSURE ONE'S LIFE?

In the USSR insurance is a state monopoly. Insurance policies may be taken out by any person between the age of 16 and 60 for various periods (10, 15, 20 years or longer). The sum is named by the person concerned, and the payment depends on the amount and duration of the policy.

CAN PROPERTY BE INSURED?

Not only can it be insured, but in a number of cases it is obligatory since insurance payments are used not only to reimburse losses but also for measures to prevent fire, loss of livestock and natural calamities. Almost all property of collective farms—buildings, implements, equipment, and crops—and also the cattle, sheep, goats and pigs owned by the collective farmers must be insured. Citizens may insure their household property and also the buildings and vehicles owned by them.

Education

HOW IS EDUCATION ORGANISED?

Pre-school establishments, general education schools, including boarding schools, technical schools, specialised secondary schools, colleges and universities are all part of a unified educational system which improves from year to year.

There are no private schools. All schools are run by the state. The school is separated from the church. There is no discrimination of any kind on grounds of nationality, religion or sex. Altogether, tuition is given in 66 languages spoken in the USSR. The children may attend national schools where tuition is given in their native language, or Russian schools, according to their parents' wish.

All children attend the school from the age of seven.

Secondary schooling is at present divided into two stages. In the first, all children up to the age of 15 to 16 years attend the secondary eight-year polytechnical school. Having finished this school, the pupils may either complete their secondary education, or go to work and attend evening (shift) or day schools, technical schools or other specialised or trade schools.

In the 1966-67 school year a total of over 48,200,000 pupils attended 210,000 general education schools. Besides this, about 2 million went to specialised schools, technical schools and factory-training schools.

During the period 1966-70 the introduction of universal compulsory complete ten-year secondary education will in general be accomplished. It is proposed to build more than 22,000 new schools during these years. The number of young people finishing ten-year secondary schools will be four times the figure for the previous five-year period.

WHAT ARE THE PRINCIPLES OF SOVIET EDUCATION?

The Soviet school aims at providing its pupils with the fundamentals of knowledge, bringing up good citizens, intelligent in the broad sense of the word, socially conscious, morally pure and physically fit. Proceeding from this, the school pays attention to the mental, moral, aesthetic and physical development of the growing generation. The school training develops the ability for independent thought, speech, memory, imagination, desire for knowledge, ability to acquire knowledge independently and apply it in practice. It aims at mastering the rudiments of science and the communist outlook, and provides labour and technical training.

Ethical education inculcates in the citizen diligence, honesty, humaneness, loyalty to duty and comradeship. The pupil should become a staunch internationalist, a man of lofty principles, an active builder of the new society.

Aesthetic training teaches children to appreciate beauty, helps them to understand art and to develop their artistic talents.

Physical training aims at bringing up healthy and strong youngsters.

HOW MANY TEACHERS ARE THERE IN THE USSR?

In the 1966-67 school year there were over 2,500,000 teachers, of whom about 70 per cent were women.

Primary school teachers are graduates of teachers' training schools. Teachers for the senior secondary school graduate from either teachers' colleges or universities. Considerable attention is paid to further advancement of school teachers' knowledge and qualifications. For this purpose different courses, teaching methods centres and other institutions function in all territorial and regional centres, and in the capitals of the Union and Autonomous Republics. Advanced training is also offered by various evening and correspondence courses arranged by teachers' colleges.

The Academy of Educational Sciences renders considerable assistance to teachers. It has a qualified staff well-versed in various aspects of education, its history and teaching methods.

A great deal of literature is published on these subjects. Several newspapers appear in the Union Republics, the most popular being *Uchitelskaya Gazeta* (Teachers' Gazette), published in Moscow.

WHAT PRE-SCHOOL ESTABLISHMENTS FUNCTION IN THE USSR?

In 1966 the creches (up to three years of age) and kindergartens (three to seven years) took care of over 8,000,000 children. Furthermore, in summer they look after an additional four million children.

Creches and kindergartens are highly popular in this country. In 1965 the state network of pre-school establishments increased to accommodate 435,000 more children and the collective farm network to accommodate 114,000 more children. Despite the growth of the children's institutions, the parents' «demand» for accommodation at kindergartens and creches is constantly rising. The instructors at pre-school establishments are, as a rule, experienced graduates from special sections of teachers' higher or specialised secondary schools.

Parents can be sure the children will be looked after all day and given good, nourishing meals.

HOW IS AESTHETIC TRAINING PROVIDED?

Aesthetic training begins in early childhood, when the child first experiences primitive aesthetic feelings, such as a liking for a simple melody or bright colours. At this age the pre-school establishments seek to teach the children to «see» and to «hear», and then to distinguish and appreciate beauty in nature and life around them. Household articles, toys, songs, music, musical games, children's books, rhymes, drawing and modelling are used for this purpose.

In school aesthetic training is given as part of all lessons in language and literature, singing, drawing and physical culture. Outside school this aim is pursued by talks on music, literature and fine arts, exhibitions, library evenings, visits to theatres and the cinema.

HOW IS POLYTECHNICAL TRAINING INTRODUCED IN THE SCHOOL?

A person can be taught to read and write, to solve mathematical problems quickly, but he will be ill-fit for life if he does not acquire elementary working habits. Polytechnical training is intended to put an end to the one-sided nature of the school which, in the past, sought primarily to give the pupils theoretical knowledge.

Secondary school curricula are drawn up in such a way as to ensure the best combination of general education (general knowledge of all subjects), polytechnical training (acquaintance with modern production), and labour training (ability to handle tools). This system helps the young to find their place in life, to be sure of their choice of vocation.

WHAT IS THE EIGHT-YEAR SCHOOL CURRICULUM?

The curriculum of the eight-year school includes the following subjects: the native language and literature (in national schools), the Russian language and literature, arithmetic, geometry, natural sciences (botany, zoology, biology, anatomy), history (history of the USSR, ancient and medieval history), geography (physical and economic geography of the

USSR, physical geography of the countries of the world), physics, chemistry, a foreign language, drawing, technical drawing, singing, physical training, labour training.

After finishing the eighth form a pupil may continue studying at a complete ten-year secondary school or at a special secondary educational institution.

In 1966 over 4 million people finished eight-year school.

WHAT IS THE COMPLETE TEN-YEAR SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM?

The curriculum of the complete ten-year school includes the following subjects: the native language and literature, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, natural sciences (botany, zoology, biology, anatomy), history (history of the USSR, ancient and medieval history, modern history), social sciences, geography (physical and economic geography of the USSR, physical geography of the countries of the world, economic geography of foreign countries), physics, chemistry, astronomy, a foreign language, drawing, technical drawing, singing, physical training, labour training.

The curriculum of a secondary polytechnical school provides production training (theory and practice), vocational training at a production enterprise.

In 1966 a total of 2.6 million pupils finished these schools. In addition to complete secondary education pupils at these schools get a trade (electrician, turner and so on).

Pupils who finish complete ten-year secondary schools may go on to study at higher schools.

HOW ARE FOREIGN LANGUAGES TAUGHT?

Teaching of foreign languages begins in the fifth year. Four hours a week are devoted to the subject. Particular attention is paid to oral practice. Forms with more than 25 pupils are divided into two groups for better progress in foreign language studies. In most of schools pupils study English, French, Spanish and in some schools one of the Eastern languages. On finishing school the pupils must understand and translate simple texts.

Special schools where the study of a foreign language begins in the second year exist in big cities. At these schools the teaching of geography, history, foreign literature is given in a foreign language. Students in senior forms do translations of technical texts. Pupils at these specialised schools acquire a good knowledge of one foreign language.

WHO ARE BOARDING SCHOOLS FOR?

They have the same curriculum as the ten-year schools. But the children stay there during the whole study year apart from holidays. The schools have dormitories, dining rooms and other premises for the pupils who live and study there.

Children go to boarding schools only if their parents so desire. Preference is given to children from large families and those who have no parents.

Tuition in these schools is free. Children from large families, and from families with low earnings are maintained entirely by the state. Parents with high earnings pay from 30 to 70 per cent of the cost of their children's food and clothing.

WHAT ARE SCHOOLS WITH PROLONGED-DAY GROUPS?

They are schools where children may stay on after classes if their parents wish them to (classes in the lower forms finish in the early afternoon).

Each prolonged-day group consists of pupils from parallel classes. Children attending them have dinner and tea at school. They stay and do their homework under the supervision of teachers.

The number of prolonged-day groups is to be extended. In 1966 there were four million children in such groups or at boarding schools, and by 1970 there will be about twice as many places in prolonged-day groups.

WHAT IS A CHILDREN'S HOME?

If for various reasons children are without parents the state takes care of them. In this case the children are brought up in children's homes.

Especially great number of orphaned children were brought up in children's homes after the two World Wars.

Children's homes are maintained entirely by the state. Some take children under school age (from three to seven years) and some older children (from seven to 18 years). There are also mixed homes for all-age categories.

On reaching the age of 15 or 16, coinciding with the end of the eight-year school, the children continue their education at vocational or technical schools, according to their inclinations.

All these children, when they attend specialised secondary schools or colleges, receive state stipends, irrespective of the progress in their studies.

Every children's home has a board of trustees, consisting of public representatives, to assist in education, training and maintenance. Industrial enterprises and offices, state farms and collective farms render considerable material assistance to the children's homes and take a keen interest in their activities.

HOW IS TEACHING ORGANISED FOR HANDICAPPED AND MENTALLY RETARDED CHILDREN?

Unfortunately, every country has handicapped children. In the USSR there are special boarding schools with the same curricula as in other schools, but methods, terms of tuition and study aids are adapted to the pupils' capabilities. Teachers for these schools receive special training.

Two types of schools—eight-year and complete secondary—exist for the blind. The period of study here is a year longer than in the ordinary schools. Many pupils finishing such a secondary school go on to university or college.

The schools for deaf mutes have a nine-year course of study, during which the pupils acquire an education according to the elementary school curriculum, plus trade training. There are also schools for deaf mutes with curricula

similar to the eight-year school. Some schools for children who are hard of hearing have two departments, depending on the degree of loss of hearing. Congenital speech defects are removed at speech correction centres organised at a number of general schools.

The course of study in the schools for mentally retarded children is eight years. During this period the children receive education according to the curricula of the ordinary elementary school and vocational training, adapted to their capabilities.

WHAT IS A TECHNICAL SCHOOL'S ROLE?

For trade school training of skilled workers with a good general education, the term of study varies from one to two years, depending on the standard of the given trade. Technical schools train engine-operators and engine-drivers, motor-operators and their assistants, metal-workers (turners, milling machine-operators), wood-workers (carpenters and cabinet-makers), electricians and mechanics, plumbers, fitters, forging machine-operators. Agricultural workers are also trained (mechanics, tractor-drivers, combine harvester-operators and their assistants).

Over a million qualified workers in more than 700 trades were turned out in 1966 by 4,000 odd technical schools. From 1940 to 1966 they trained a total of 17,000,000 workers. In 1970 these schools will give enrolment to 1,700,000-1,800,000 pupils.

WHAT IS A SPECIALISED SECONDARY SCHOOL?

Specialised secondary schools work on full-time day study, evening or correspondence basis. They enrol young men and women, from the age of 14 to 30 with an eight-year general education who pass the entrance examinations. The period of study is usually four years.

This is a vocational secondary school, specialising in different subjects: industry, economics, transport, communications, construction, agriculture, and so on. These schools train medium-grade qualified specialists: technicians, electricians, mechanics, motor-repairmen, planning workers,

statisticians, goods managers, agronomists' assistants and veterinarians. There are also secondary educational establishments of the same category specialising in medicine, education, music, art and other subjects.

The curricula of these schools include general educational subjects (literature, mathematics, physics, chemistry) and the selected vocational subjects. Great attention is paid to practical industrial training. The specialised secondary schools have their own laboratories, workshops and study rooms. They maintain close contact with enterprises in their respective fields of work.

School-leavers have to take state exams or submit a diploma thesis, whereupon they are immediately assigned work in their own fields.

In 1966, the country's 4,000 specialised secondary schools graduated 680,000 specialists.

In 1966-67 there were over 4 million pupils studying in specialised secondary schools. Half of them were taking extra-mural courses. Enrolment came to 1,200,000.

By 1970 enrolment in specialised secondary schools will number 1,600,000 pupils.

WHAT IS THE PATTERN OF HIGHER EDUCATION?

The majority of higher educational institutions in the USSR are state organisations financed from the state budget. The only exceptions are a small number of colleges belonging to cooperatives and public organisations.

Higher education is divided into three types: full-time day study, evening departments and correspondence courses. Sometimes one institute combines all three forms. The degrees conferred by any of these three types carry equal status.

Administratively and financially, some of the colleges are subordinated to the Union Republics. A number of the specialised colleges come under corresponding Ministries or Departments. All educational and scientific work is guided by the Ministry of Higher and Specialised Secondary Education of the USSR.

Besides the principle of one-man management, collective management is widely practiced in the higher educational establishments. Each college or university is headed

by a rector. An academic board functions under his chairmanship. It includes representatives of the student bodies.

The boards deal with scientific and educational matters and study the experience of the chairs and faculties.

The chairs are the principal guiding bodies in each higher educational institution. They combine educational, scientific-research and methodological work in one subject or several closely allied subjects.

The curricula include a wide range of general scientific, technical (in technical educational institutions), special and optional subjects which the students are free to choose. Higher education envisages compulsory scientific-research work for each student. The course of studies ends with the defence of the diploma paper or with the passing of state exams. The term of studies varies between four and six years.

HOW MANY STUDENTS ARE THERE IN THE USSR?

In 1966-67 the USSR had 3.5 times as many university students as Britain, France, West Germany and Italy put together, or more than 4,100,000.

Colleges and universities enrol citizens of either sex, who have finished a secondary school, without any discrimination of a national, social or any other nature. In 1966 Soviet higher educational establishments enrolled about 900,000 students. By 1970 the figure will go up to 940,000 while the total of students in higher schools will reach some 5,000,000.

In pre-revolutionary Russia there were only 105 universities and colleges in 21 cities and towns with the student body of 127,000, that is eight students per 10,000 population. Now there are universities and colleges in 250 cities. Only by the beginning of the 1966-67 school year eleven new higher schools were opened in the country. All in all, there are 767 colleges and universities, and 176 students per 10,000 population.

The development of higher education is given considerable financial encouragement by the state. Yearly expenses per student amount to: 1,060 roubles for engineering schools, 1,023 roubles for agricultural schools, 829 and 827 roubles for pedagogical and medical colleges, respectively, and 972 roubles for universities.

DO STUDENTS RECEIVE STIPENDS?

All students who make good progress in their studies at full-time day departments of higher and specialised secondary schools receive state stipends. In addition, rectors have at their disposal a special fund to give aid where necessary (for instance, to students with large families who cannot live on stipends alone).

Students making excellent progress receive stipends 25 per cent above normal.

There are also special higher stipends, instituted in memory of prominent statesmen and public figures, eminent scientists, writers and artists. These scholarships are granted to particularly talented students.

Every year sees an increasing number of students receiving stipends directly from industrial enterprises and collective farms which have sent them to study at a higher educational establishment because of their outstanding achievements at work.

WHAT SPECIALISTS ARE TRAINED BY THE COLLEGES?

The higher educational institutions turn out specialists in all fields as needed by the country.

In 1966 the country's higher educational institutions graduated 432,000 specialists, including 179,000 engineers, 35,000 agricultural specialists and 26,000 doctors. Universities have a broad range of courses including physics, chemistry, mathematics, mechanics, biology, geology, geography, philology, history, philosophy, economics and law whose graduates acquire wide specialisation.

Skilled engineers of nearly 200 professions are trained by the various technical institutes.

Specialists in economics, trade and finance are trained by special institutes of economics and faculties at a number of universities, as well as by the engineering departments and faculties of economics at some of the technical colleges.

Law is taught at special institutes and the appropriate faculties of universities. There are also special teachers' institutes and medical colleges.

50 colleges provide training in literature and arts. Half of these train musicians of the highest qualification.

In the last twenty six years the number of specialists with higher education per 1,000 people has increased four-fold. Beginning with only 6 in 1939, there were already 18 by 1959 and 27 by the beginning of 1966. Between 1959 and 1967 Soviet colleges and universities trained 2,400,000 specialists including 850,000 engineers, 230,000 agronomists and other agricultural specialists, over 800,000 teachers and 200,000 doctors.

By 1967 the total number of specialists with higher education working in the national economy made up some 5,200,000.

HOW ARE STUDENTS PROVIDED WITH WORK AFTER GRADUATION?

The universities and colleges train specialists in accordance with the demands of the national economy and culture. The graduates are ensured wide opportunities for application of their knowledge and abilities.

A university receives requests for its graduates in good time. At a state commission meeting and in the presence of representatives of organisations offering employment to young specialists, the graduates choose their future places of work.

Having received an appointment, the graduate is given a month's holiday, and a month's grant. The enterprise administration pays travelling expenses for the worker and members of his family and the cost of moving his belongings to his new home, and provides him with living quarters.

WHAT IS MOSCOW UNIVERSITY LIKE?

It is one of the largest educational and scientific centres of our country, founded in 1755 on the initiative and according to the plan of the great Russian scientist, Mikhail Lomonosov, whose name it bears.

Moscow University has 14 faculties and 223 chairs. It has four research institutes, 250 laboratories, 163 study rooms, ten research centres, three museums, botanical gardens and four observatories.

The teaching staff includes nearly 4,000 professors, teachers and scientific workers, including 35 members and 44 corresponding members of the USSR Academy of Sciences, 57 members of the republican and branch academies, 500 Doctors of Science and over 1,800 Masters of Science.

Many scientific schools originated and developed in Moscow University, in particular in the Soviet period—for instance, the school of N. Zhukovsky and S. Chaplygin in aerodynamics; A. Kolmogorov, I. Petrovsky, P. Alexandrov and L. Pontryagin in mathematics; F. Bredikhin in the astronomy of comets; A. Stoletov, P. Lebedev and N. Umov in experimental physics and N. Zelinsky in organic chemistry; and A. Nesmeyanov in elemental organic compounds.

The student body exceeds 32,000, of whom 14,500 study extra-murally, 2,800 post-graduates and practical workers while working on their theses attached to different chairs are training for scientific and educational posts.

The student body represents 60 nationalities of the Soviet Union.

Moscow University, with its 34-storey main building and new premises on Lenin Hills alone occupy an area of some 160 hectares. There are 25,000 rooms, of which 6,000 are students' hostels. The library contains more than 6.5 million books, magazines and files of Russian and foreign newspapers.

Moscow University conducts a regular exchange of scientific works with 200 educational and scientific institutions in some 60 countries.

HOW ARE EVENING DEPARTMENTS AND CORRESPONDENCE COURSES ORGANISED?

The USSR has 30 independent correspondence and evening institutes and more than 1,000 correspondence and evening faculties at institutes. More than half the students (almost 2,400) study this way.

Besides the 210 independent correspondence and evening technical schools there are more than 3,300 correspondence and evening courses and departments functioning in special secondary schools with a total enrolment of 1,800,000.

Extra-mural training is provided in the majority of specialities. Huge enterprises and building sites have evening and correspondence departments or branches.

Extra-mural students are given many privileges by the state. First- and second-year students at evening colleges are given an additional paid leave of 20 days yearly for their exam session, students of specialised secondary evening schools—a ten-day leave, and students of correspondence colleges and secondary schools—a thirty-day paid leave. Beginning with their third year students of evening colleges get a 30-day paid leave, those studying at specialised secondary evening schools—a 20-day leave and those at correspondence colleges and secondary schools a 40-day leave.

During the state examination session students of correspondence and evening colleges and specialised secondary schools have an additional 30-day paid leave, and for the writing and defence of their diploma paper—two-months leave for students of secondary schools and four-months leave for those at college.

Besides, students in their final year are allowed to take an additional month's leave without pay for practical training in their field of specialisation and to prepare for their diploma paper. Apart from this students in their final year are given one day off weekly (for which they receive half pay) and at their wish one or two days more without pay.

Half of the students' travelling expenses to their school or college for laboratory work and exams are borne by the state.

Since students are usually well acquainted with the practical side of their speciality they may discontinue work while taking the final courses so that they can devote more time to research, design and development.

WHAT IS A FACTORY TRAINING COLLEGE?

It is a higher technical educational institution which is a component part of a large industrial enterprise. At such institutions the students' theoretical training is closely connected with production work. The students study and work «under the same roof» so to say. Considerable experi-

ence in running such institutes has been accumulated by the Likhachov motor works in Moscow, the Leningrad metal-working plant and the Rostov agricultural machinery works.

Studies at such colleges are conducted in two stages. For the first five months the students study and work; for the next five months they are released from work and devote themselves exclusively to theory. For this time the plant pays them stipends, which are 15 per cent higher than at ordinary colleges. After finishing their studies graduates as a rule get work at the same plant in accordance with their qualification.

HOW MANY ENGINEERS ARE THERE IN THE USSR?

The number of engineers employed in the national economy totalled 1,800,000 in 1966, while the number of graduates that year was over 179,000 (compared with the corresponding figures, 750,000, and 43,000 in the USA).

CAN FOREIGNERS ATTEND SOVIET HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS?

Some 24,000 citizens of 128 foreign countries study at 300 universities and colleges in Moscow, Leningrad, Kiev, Tbilisi, Baku, Tashkent and other cities. Moscow State University has 2,000 students from some 70 foreign countries. The number of foreign graduates from Moscow State University since 1950 totals 1,500, and about 400 have become Masters of Science.

During the last twelve years the USSR trained more than 27,000 foreign citizens. In 1966 Soviet higher schools enrolled nearly 6,000 students from different countries.

WHAT IS THE PATRICE LUMUMBA FRIENDSHIP UNIVERSITY?

This is a special university, set up to provide students from Asia, Africa and Latin America with the opportunity to acquire a higher education. Studies began there in October 1960.

The founders of the University are the Soviet Afro-Asian Solidarity Committee, the Union of Soviet Societies of Friendship and Cultural Relations With Foreign Countries and the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions.

The Lumumba University has become an important scientific centre. It has 79 chairs, 112 laboratories and 55 study rooms. On the teaching staff are 900 instructors, over 50 Doctors of Science and 300 Masters of Science. The University is run by a collective body—the University Council—which approves the budget, draws up and approves the plans for educational and research work, chooses the professorial staff, among whom are prominent scientists from Asian, African and Latin American countries, adopts the rules of enrolment and has the right to enrol and expel students. The Council includes representatives of the sponsoring organisations, the Committee of Youth Organisations of the USSR and Ministry of Higher and Specialised Secondary Education, the Rector and Pro-Rector, as well as representatives of the teaching staff and students. The student representatives are elected at general faculty meetings of lecturers and students. Certain questions are discussed by the Council in the presence of representatives of the students' national associations.

The University has some 3,800 students and post-graduates from over 80 countries, and is affiliated to the International Association of Universities.

IN WHAT SPECIALITIES DOES THE LUMUMBA UNIVERSITY OFFER TRAINING?

Lumumba University has the following faculties:

Engineering (machine-building, power-engineering, road construction and maintenance, mineral prospecting, extraction and application).

Agriculture (trains agronomists).

Medicine (trains general practitioners).

Physico-mathematics and natural sciences (mathematics, physics and chemistry).

History and philology (history, literature, Russian language).

Economics and law (economics and national economic planning, international law).

All in all there are 14 specialities.

The term of study in the Medical Department is five years, in all the other departments—four years.

In 1964 the first specialists graduated from the Lumumba University. In 1966 the University had 470 graduates from 59 countries.

WHO IS ELIGIBLE FOR ENROLMENT AT LUMUMBA UNIVERSITY?

Men and women under 35 years of age, irrespective of race, nationality or religion. Applicants are not bound by any political or other commitments. Applications from citizens of Asia, Africa and Latin America may be addressed directly to the Lumumba University, or handed into Soviet embassies and consulates abroad. Applicants with general secondary education are enrolled after examinations. All applicants who have passed their entrance examinations are enrolled as students of the preparatory faculty for one or two years where they study the Russian language and general subjects if it is necessary.

WHAT MATERIAL AID IS PROVIDED FOR FOREIGN STUDENTS AT LUMUMBA UNIVERSITY?

Hostel accommodation is provided free. Nor does student have to pay anything for lectures, use of laboratories, text-books and study aids, or for consultations with specialists. All the student has to do is study.

Furthermore, travelling expenses to the Soviet Union to begin the course and to return home after graduation are paid. Warm winter clothing is provided free. The students incur no expenses connected with medical services, sport, visiting museums and exhibitions.

In addition, they receive a monthly stipend of 90 roubles (100 US dollars).

WHAT DEGREES AND SCIENTIFIC TITLES ARE CONFERRED IN THE USSR?

A unified system of certification of scientific and teaching personnel exists in the USSR since 1934. There are two scientific degrees: Master (Candidate) of Science and Doctor

of Science. A graduate working for a Master's degree must finish the required higher educational course, pass examinations according to a special programme, write and publicly defend a thesis at a university or research institution. The thesis must be published in advance.

To take the degree of Doctor of Science, the student must carry out extensive research on some up-to-date theme. After publication, this research work must be publicly submitted by the author to one of the higher schools or scientific institutes the academic council of which is responsible for considering doctorate awards.

The decision of the academic board on conferring a degree is taken by secret vote and approved by the USSR Ministry of Higher and Specialised Secondary Education's higher certification board.

The following scientific titles also exist at universities and colleges: assistant professor, docent, professor; at research centres: junior scientific worker, senior scientific worker.

The title of assistant professor (or junior scientific worker) is conferred on persons with higher education, possessing the necessary qualifications, and working under the guidance of a professor or docent (senior scientific worker).

The title of docent or senior scientific worker is usually conferred on persons having a Master of Science degree and conducting appropriate teaching or research work.

The title of professor is conferred on persons having a doctor's degree in science and conducting extensive teaching or research work.

The Soviet higher school has more than 220,000 professors and teachers on its staff. Some 80,000 are Doctors or Masters of Science. They make up nearly half of all the workers in science with degrees.

Post-graduate courses are responsible for the training of scientific and teaching personnel. By the beginning of 1967 the country had about 100,000 post-graduate students with more than 55,000 studying at colleges and universities.

In 1966 some 18,000 defended their theses for a Master of Science degree and some 1,800 received their Doctor's degree.

Science and Technology

HOW MANY SCIENTIFIC WORKERS ARE THERE IN THE SOVIET UNION?

In 1966 there were about 711,600, among them 16,600 with Doctor's and 152,300 with Master's degrees. Half of them work in the technological or physico-mathematical sciences.

The number of Soviet scientists doubles every seven years; it grows twice as fast as in the capitalist countries of Europe and much more rapidly than in the United States where their number doubles every ten years. The USSR has more scientific workers than any other country—each fourth scientist in the world works in the Soviet Union.

WHICH SOVIET SCIENTISTS ARE NOBEL PRIZE WINNERS?

The physicists P. Cherenkov, I. Tamm and I. Frank were awarded Nobel Prizes for the discovery, study and explanation of the «Cherenkov effect»—bluish luminescence of water when subjected to nuclear irradiation.

Academician N. Semyonov, one of our foremost chemists, received a Nobel Prize for major work, resulting from many years of research. He succeeded in summarising and finding uniform laws for all chain reactions taking place in nature. The burning of a match and the explosion of an atom bomb, no matter how unlike they may be, are subject to the same laws of chain reaction, studied by Nikolai Semyonov.

Academician Lev Landau was a 1962 Nobel Prize winner.

Landau's chief works are on solid-state physics, the physics of low temperatures, nuclear physics and cosmic rays.

N. Basov and A. Prokhorov were awarded the 1964 Nobel Prize in physics. They received the Prize, together with the American physicist Charles H. Townes, for basic research in the sphere of quantum electronics, which led to development of generators and amplifiers in radio and optical wave ranges — so-called masers and lasers.

HOW MANY SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH INSTITUTES ARE THERE IN THE SOVIET UNION?

There are over 4,700 scientific research institutes in the USSR as compared with 300 in pre-revolutionary Russia.

The state makes colossal outlays for scientific development. In 1967, 7,200,000 million roubles have been allocated for these purposes. The annual increase in allocations for science averages about 15 per cent. The Government does not impose any practical limits on scientists when the most important problems are being tackled.

WHAT IS THE ROLE OF THE USSR ACADEMY OF SCIENCES IN THE SYSTEM OF SCIENTIFIC INSTITUTIONS?

The Academy of Sciences is the supreme scientific institution in the country, being made up of the most prominent scientists in all fields of knowledge.

The USSR Academy of Sciences has 565 full and corresponding members.

Besides the USSR Academy of Sciences which coordinates

the research work on a country-wide scale, there are academies of sciences in each Union Republic. They have 950 full and corresponding members. To this must be added branch academies of medicine, education, agriculture and arts. The membership of each academy is periodically renewed. New members are elected to the academies at general meetings by secret ballot.

The USSR Academy of Sciences comprises 15 specialised branches. Three sections guide the work of the branches and scientific institutions: physics and mathematics; chemistry and biology; social sciences.

The Siberian branch of the Academy was established in 1957. It comprises over 20 research institutes. The combined staff includes some 40 academicians and corresponding members of the Academy, over 100 doctors and 1,000 masters of sciences.

The Academy of Sciences directs research on the pivotal problems of natural and social sciences. It is the Academy's task to reveal new possibilities for technological progress and recommend their application in the national economy.

By the beginning of 1966 the institutions under the USSR Academy of Sciences and the Academies of Sciences of the Union Republics, along with the research centres and laboratories of those establishments of higher learning whose activities are coordinated by the USSR Academy of Sciences, employed over 55,000 researchers (including 3,000 doctors and 15,000 masters of science).

The USSR Academy of Sciences gives much attention to the development of contacts with foreign scientists and to joint research. The Academy takes an active part in the activities of over 100 international scientific organisations.

In 1966, nearly 3,500 scientists and scholars of the USSR Academy of Sciences and the Academies of the Union Republics visited 60 countries.

The USSR in turn received over 9,300 scientists and scholars from 70 countries.

WHAT ARE THE FUNCTIONS OF THE STATE COMMITTEE FOR SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY?

The Committee is an all-Union body whose purpose is to ensure the implementation of an integrated country-wide

policy with regard to scientific and technological progress and widely apply scientific and technological advances in the national economy.

The chief tasks of the Committee are as follows: determining the most promising directions in the development of science and technology; guiding the elaboration of inter-branch problems; raising the effectiveness of research and introducing scientific and technological advances into the national economy in order to secure maximum efficiency; organising country-wide scientific and technological information; cooperating with other countries.

In line with the above tasks the Committee assesses the level of development of science and engineering in diverse branches of the national economy. The Committee, together with the USSR Academy of Sciences, all-Union ministries and departments, as well as the Councils of Ministers of the Union Republics, elaborates drafts for long-term plans solving cardinal scientific and engineering problems and makes suggestions regarding the utilisation in the national economy of scientific and engineering achievements, as well as the results of completed projects. Besides, the Committee is charged with selecting the most promising fundamental research done by the institutions of the USSR Academy of Sciences and the Academies of the Union Republics and establishments of higher learning, in order to supervise their further development, and ultimate implementation in the national economy.

The Committee checks on realisation of plans for research work, concentrating, in the interests of the state as a whole, the efforts of many research bodies on chief tasks of special importance to the national economy and to science itself, and seeing to it that manpower resources are not dispersed.

It is also the function of the Committee, together with the USSR Academy of Sciences and the Committee for Inventions and Discoveries under the Council of Ministers, to single out important discoveries, inventions and results of research whose implementation is not practicable today but which holds promise for the future.

The Committee is in charge of scientific propaganda and information, as well as planning the training of scientific personnel.

DO HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS ENGAGE IN RESEARCH?

Yes, they do and the volume of work is growing. Higher educational institutions contribute to the development of science and to technological progress. Within the past few years, 50 professors and teachers have been awarded the Lenin Prize for outstanding scientific achievements.

Research conducted at colleges and universities is both theoretical and practical in nature. Practically every teacher and every department and laboratory make plans for research work which are endorsed by the scientific council of the given institution.

Of late joint research projects by the personnel of colleges and universities, and the personnel of specialised institutes and industrial enterprises have become quite common. Many higher educational institutions sign agreements with industrial enterprises to work on production problems. Both parties profit from this cooperation.

Research is also conducted by students' scientific societies. Students have set up over 250 research and designing bureaus. Some 500,000 students are engaged in research and designing. Quite a few of these projects are exhibited, published and implemented.

300 projects and other work by students will annually be awarded prizes beginning with 1967.

HOW IS ATOMIC ENERGY USED FOR PEACEFUL PURPOSES?

The world's first atomic power station and atomic ice-breaker were built in the USSR. They signified the appearance of two new trends in practical application of the energy of the atomic nucleus: atomic power engineering and atomic transport.

Two big atomic power stations have been commissioned: the Novo-Voronezhskaya (in Central Russia) and the Beloyarskaya (in the Urals).

By the end of 1966 the capacity of Soviet atomic power stations reached about 900,000 kw and in 1970 it will be several million kw.

The USSR is conducting research in the peaceful uses of atomic energy in many directions. Unique atomic power stations—the transportable «Arbus» and mobile «TES-3»—have been designed and built. They will be used in the remote, newly developed areas. The USSR has commissioned the famous «Romashka» — the world's first installation which directly transforms nuclear heat energy into electricity. «Romashka»-type installations will be employed in many branches of industry. On the Caspian Sea a combined atomic power station and desalination plant are being built. New atomic ice-breakers are now under construction.

In the USSR atomic energy in «small doses» is also widely used. Hundreds of industrially-produced types of radioactive isotopes and sources of nuclear radiation help doctors, biologists, metallurgists and chemists in their work.

The USSR attaches tremendous importance to research in the field of controlled thermonuclear reaction. Controlled thermonuclear reaction will forever rid humanity of the threat of «energy hunger», for then the oceans will be turned into unlimited sources of power.

WHAT IS THE ROLE OF CYBERNETICS IN THE NATIONAL ECONOMY?

A wide range of computers are being extensively introduced into science, industry, transport, etc.

Cybernetics and econometric methods are used for the improvement of socialist planning and economic management, for consolidating inter-branch and inter-regional economic ties, for the effective employment of transport, for economically substantiated distribution of production facilities and industries, for selecting the optimum allocation of funds for capital construction, for the improvement of pricing, for demographic and other calculations.

WHAT SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH DOES THE USSR CONDUCT IN THE ARCTIC AND ANTARCTIC?

Almost all sciences are represented at the North and South poles. There you will find biologists, geographers,

geologists, oceanographers, hydrologists, chemists and geophysicists. The reasons for such a great interest are no secret to anyone. Keys to many mysteries of nature are hidden there. These regions are the «kitchen» of terrestrial weather. And who knows what other surprises await us in this kingdom of eternal cold?

Soviet exploration of the Arctic has been in progress for 35 years. Dozens of permanent research stations operate there. Besides, research is continuously conducted by drifting stations in the Arctic Ocean. The first such station was organised in May, 1937 in the proximity of the North Pole.

The countries taking part in the exploration of Antarctic have agreed to exchange information and conduct joint research, in continuation of the International Geophysical Year programme started in 1957. Soviet scientists are particularly interested in the animal kingdom of the ice-bound continent and the ocean waters surrounding it; in the velocity, direction and periodicity of winds in different seasons of the year; in summer and winter temperatures and the thickness of the ice cap.

HOW IS COOPERATION ORGANISED BETWEEN RESEARCH INSTITUTES AND PRODUCTION?

Among specialised and branch institutes there are leading ones. The latter, together with the respective ministries, determine technical policy in the given branch of industry. They issue instructions to other institutes subordinated to them and even to enterprises as to what experiments to conduct and problems to tackle. Some research institutes have pilot plants of their own. They can turn over a new method or tested machine directly for mass production.

A well-coordinated chain: research institute, design office, pilot plant, industrial enterprises —serves to bring into practice the latest scientific advances in the quickest way possible.

ARE THERE PATENTS FOR DISCOVERIES AND INVENTIONS IN THE USSR?

State diplomas are awarded for discoveries and certificates or patents are issued for inventions. These are different

things in the USSR. An inventor can demand: «I only want recognition of my invention», or «I want to have my invention recognised, and to have the exclusive right to it»—in other words, to keep control of it. In the former instance an inventor's certificate is issued, and in the latter a patent.

The right to use an invention to which an inventor's certificate has been issued belongs to the state, which takes responsibility for its application. This is of great benefit to science, the national economy and the inventor himself. In addition to state enterprises and institutions, cooperatives and public organisations can also make use of inventions. Thus, the inventor's talent benefits the whole society. Along with the issue of a certificate for an invention or proposal on rationalisation, the inventor is paid a premium, depending on their value.

The patent, on the other hand, forbids anyone using the invention without the inventor's consent. The patent-holder alone can cede his patent. The patent remains valid for 15 years.

HOW IS THE TECHNICAL INFORMATION SERVICE ORGANISED?

Enterprises have technical information bureaus, technical study rooms, technical libraries. Technical information bureaus of ministries issue bulletins and often foreign information bulletins. Inter-branch technical centres where technical consultation can be obtained exist in many cities.

The activities of technical information bureaus at enterprises, ministries and other organisations are coordinated by the All-Union Institute of Scientific and Technical Information (VINITI). It does a tremendous amount of bibliographical work, issuing «abstracts» bulletins and reviews of literature. The range of its publications is constantly growing. At present, it embraces practically all branches of technology. Its main publications are *Express Information* (concerned chiefly with technology), which appears in 100 series, and the voluminous *Abstracts Journals* (dealing with science) published in 13 series. The Institute receives and processes over 30,000 publications in 70 languages,

including periodicals from all countries, foreign patents, and books on science and engineering. The institute employs 2,300 specialists and enlists the services of 20,000 translators (non-staff) and 13,000 researchers and engineers. More than 100,000 sets of blueprints are sent by the Institute to all parts of the USSR annually.

In addition to VINITI, there exist big centres of technical information: the State Scientific Library of the USSR Ministry of Higher Education in Novosibirsk, affiliated to the USSR Academy of Sciences and the State Public Scientific and Technical Library of the USSR in Moscow. In January 1967, the USSR Council of Ministers adopted a special decision on founding an all-Union system of scientific and technical information.

It will integrate branch information services and a network of territorial interbranch information agencies. Republics, territories, and regions are establishing integrated information repositories containing appropriate literature, periodicals, patents, standards and specifications.

It has been decided to establish an all-Union scientific and technical information centre which will accumulate microfilm copies of research records. The centre will prepare and publish information concerning the latest research. Thus, researchers and engineers will be able to get information about a completed project long before its publication in the periodicals, regardless of where the work was done.

WHAT ARE THE MOST IMPORTANT ADVANCES IN SOVIET SCIENCE DURING THE LAST YEARS?

First and foremost, these years witnessed spectacular advances in space exploration.

Outer space exploration yielded basically new information regarding physical conditions in interplanetary space and in the upper atmosphere. Steps have been made in practical utilisation of outer space, long-range radio, telephone and TV communications, in weather service.

Considerable advances have been made by Soviet mathematicians in developing novel methods whereby important technical problems can be solved. Such methods are finding

wide application in new spheres of science. Powerful high-speed computers have been commissioned.

Radioelectronics is another sphere wherein successes have been scored. Numerous types of optical quantum oscillators utilising luminescence, semiconductors and gases have been developed. They are employed in instrument making, communications, in working superhard materials, in medicine.

Physicists studying superconductivity have carried out fundamental research.

In solid-state physics new methods have been evolved to obtain highly effective structural materials, such as high strength steels and alloys. Fundamentally new materials have been developed, such as glass with a strength of 200-300 kg per square millimetre, i. e. as strong as alloy steels.

Much has been done to develop crystals applicable in semiconductors, quantum electronics, optics. Commercial production of artificial diamonds has been launched. Chemists, for their part, have created new valuable materials, new types of fuel, drugs, detergents. New synthetic rubbers approximate natural rubber in structure and properties. An economical method has been evolved to produce B₁₂ vitamin, lysine (2.6-diaminohexanoic acid), protein-vitamin concentrate based on refined paraffin oil. A variety of growth stimulants and herbicides has been obtained.

Soviet scientists have developed quite a number of new crop varieties. Much has been done to evolve new varieties of plants by utilising genetic methods.

These, of course, are but a few great achievements. The annual report of the USSR Academy of Sciences, which by tradition is a concise description of the main scientific achievements of the year, comprised more than 600 pages in 1966.

WHAT PROBLEMS ARE BEING SOLVED BY SOVIET SCIENTISTS?

We shall enumerate but a few:

- employment of artificial satellites and rockets to create new effective systems for long-range communication, improvement of weather service for geodesy, navigation;
- quest for ways to control thermonuclear reactions for power engineering;

— application of nuclear physics findings in science and engineering, i. e. to control chemical processes; in plant breeding, in medicine;

— development of structural materials with a combination of preset properties (strength, plasticity, resistance to corrosion);

— search for new crystalline media for quantum electronics to widen the range of generated waves, to increase homogeneity of crystals in lasers for improving their efficiency and dependability;

— development of advanced computers;

— further development of econometric methods and electronic facilities for accounting, planning and economic management;

— search for more advanced methods of conversion and transmission of power over great ranges;

— search for effective ways to purify sewage;

— development of crop varieties immune to pests and diseases;

— examination of the chief trends in instrument making;

— quest for effective means to control cancer, influenza, etc.;

— unlocking the mysteries of heredity;

— further advances in sociological research.

Practically there is not a single important field in the life of our country where Soviet scientists do not work.

Space Exploration

WHAT AIMS DOES THE USSR PURSUE IN OUTER SPACE EXPLORATION?

Like all other sciences, study of outer space has been put at the service of the people. This does not mean that direct economic benefits can be expected, such as discovery of fabulous riches on the Moon or neighbouring planets and their transportation to Earth. Nevertheless, space exploration has already produced certain economic results: rockets and satellites help in obtaining information about the atmosphere and thus make for improvement in weather broadcasting. Moreover, commercial communication lines by means of satellites of the *Molnia-1* type are already in operation. The main aim, however, is to come to know the general laws of nature, so as to subordinate them to man's will. Knowledge of these laws will make for the fullest possible use of the natural wealth of our own planet and, in future, of other heavenly bodies.

The study of outer space is undertaken not only to gain an understanding of the evolution of the universe, but also to penetrate into the secrets of the structure of matter, which also can have a tremendous economic effect, connected with the use of atomic energy.

WHAT ARE THE USSR'S ACHIEVEMENTS IN SPACE EXPLORATION ?

On October 4, 1957, the USSR launched the first artificial satellite, thus ushering in the space era. Soon afterwards, Soviet rockets blazed a trail to the Moon. Instruments at automatic stations helped gain the first information about physical conditions on this trail and in the vicinity of the Moon. Probes have also been sent towards Venus and Mars, and it was the Soviet probe which made the first soft landing on the Moon and it was also the Soviet probe which was the first to be put into orbit as a satellite of the Moon.

Soviet scientists attach exceptional importance to manned space flights, and Soviet science and technology have achieved many firsts in this field: the first manned space flight, the first group flights, the first crew-carrying spacecraft and the first walk in space. Useful information has been obtained by Soviet scientists in the course of outer space exploration. This is an important contribution to human knowledge. Countless books and scientific works have been devoted to this exploration.

WHEN DID THE USSR SET ABOUT CONQUERING OUTER SPACE?

The starting point in the conquest of outer space can be dated to rocket research begun soon after the war, on the basis of research by a gas dynamics laboratory in Leningrad and a group for the study of jet propulsion (GIRD) in Moscow back in the thirties. The first Soviet liquid-fuel research rockets were built and tested at that time. All efforts by Soviet scientists and engineers in this field are a direct continuation of the work of the great Russian scientist Tsiolkovsky, who, at the turn of the century, showed the way to the conquest of outer space by solving many relevant scientific problems. Consequently Tsiolkovsky's work can be taken as the actual beginning of space research, rather than the launching of the first rockets and the first earth satellite.

WHAT WERE THE RESULTS OF LAUNCHING THE FIRST SOVIET SPUTNIK?

It provided scientific information necessary for subsequent launchings — specifically, for conducting biological experiments with the aid of *Sputnik-2*. It helped determine the density of the upper layers of the atmosphere, on which there was no authentic data at that time. This made it possible to calculate beforehand the possible lifespan of other sputniks on different orbits.

Radio signals from *Sputnik-1* enabled scientists to study the upper ionosphere and the radio waves in it. This helped to ensure reliable communication with the sputniks that followed and transmission of scientific information from them. Information about temperature inside the sputniks enabled scientists to solve the problem of regulating it in space flight conditions. All this was of exceptional importance for staging the biological experiment with *Sputnik-2*.

WHAT DID THE LAUNCHING OF THE SECOND AND THIRD SPUTNIKS BRING?

The flight of the dog, Laika, in the second Soviet sputnik led to the important conclusion that a prolonged space flight was feasible. For a week — as long as the power resources lasted — Laika kept «informing» scientists, in telemetric language, about her health. It was established that neither the acceleration of the booster stage, nor prolonged weightlessness and cosmic radiation as the sputniks orbited, were dangerous to living organisms.

For the first time, scientists started to study primary cosmic rays and short-wave emissions from the Sun. As discovered later, after the launching of *Sputnik-3*, the intensity of radiation increased when the sputnik flew through the polar regions of the outer radiation belt.

The third sputnik was used to study the density of the atmosphere, its ion composition, electron concentration, primary cosmic radiation, corpuscular emission from the Sun, the density of meteoric substance around the Earth and the magnetic field of the Earth at large distances from its surface.

The third sputnik helped the organisation of large-scale geophysical research, which enabled Soviet scientists to fulfil the entire programme of space study within the framework of the International Geophysical Year.

WHAT WAS THE PURPOSE OF LAUNCHING ORBITAL SHIPS WITH ANIMALS ON BOARD?

This was preparation for manned space flight. It yielded a wealth of biological information about the influence of space flight conditions on the living organism, and made possible repeated tests of all spaceship systems and a study of the route of the future manned flight. Of special importance in this respect were the results obtained during the flights of the second and third orbital ships. They helped determine the outline of the lower boundaries of the radiation zones — their «topography». It was discovered, for instance, that in the area of the Brazilian magnetic anomaly the radiation zone descends to an altitude of about 300 kilometres.

WHAT WERE THE RESULTS OF THE FIRST MANNED FLIGHT?

Gagarin's flight lasted 108 minutes. He started from the Baikonur cosmodrome on April 12, 1961, and, circuiting the planet, landed in Saratov Region.

Yuri Gagarin made only one revolution around the Earth, a feat that has been surpassed many times by other spacemen, but Gagarin's «round-the-world» trip was man's first flight in space. He was the first to prove that man could not only endure space flight conditions, but also, and this was especially important, retain full capacity to work.

Years will pass, longer space travels will be undertaken, people will reach the Moon and neighbouring and remote planets, but Gagarin's flight will remain forever the first stage in this arduous endeavour. In commemoration of this event April 12 has been made Astronautics Day in the USSR.

WHAT DID GHERMAN TITOV'S FLIGHT GIVE SCIENCE?

Gherman Titov's flight of more than 24 hours on August 6 and 7, 1961, gave the first and quite definite answer to the question of the possibility of prolonged stay in outer space. Titov covered a total of more than 700,000 kilometres, enough for a return journey to the Moon. In this respect his flight was the first experimental proof of the possibility of flying to the Moon. It showed that the vital rhythm peculiar to the human body in terrestrial conditions does not undergo perceptible changes during a stay of more than a day in space. Titov's flight was also of great importance in that it raised new scientific problems and demonstrated the need of a profound study of the effect of weightlessness on the body.

WHAT WAS MOST EXCITING ABOUT THE GROUP FLIGHT OF ANDRIAN NIKOLAYEV AND PAVEL POPOVICH?

The spaceship *Vostok-3* with Andrian Nikolayev aboard was orbited on August 11, 1962. The next day the world learned the name of Astronaut-4. From now on it was a group flight. The ships travelled along orbits close to each other, with a minimum distance of six and a half kilometres between them.

Nikolayev and Popovich were in constant touch in their twin flight. They exchanged impressions and observations.

To meet a friend far away from one's homeland is a very happy event. High above the atmosphere, it must be a hundred times more exciting.

Many telecasts from their ships were made in the course of the group flight. In accordance with the programme, the cosmonauts for the first time unstrapped themselves from their seats and floated freely in the cabins. They checked the operation of all the systems, conducted scientific observations of the Earth and the Moon, carried out biological and physical experiments, and talked to each other over the radio. Both ships landed on August 15: *Vostok-3* at 9:52 a.m. and *Vostok-4* at 9:59 a.m.

WHO HOLDS THE WORLD RECORD FOR DURATION OF SPACE FLIGHT?

Valery Bykovsky. His flight lasted 119 hours (June 14-19 1963). His *Vostok-5* covered more than 3,300,000 kilometres.

Bykovsky's five days in space made it possible to check in detail all the devices and cosmonaut's capacity for prolonged flights, as well as to conduct valuable medico-biological observations essential for further penetration of man into space. Bykovsky also carried out observations and experiments connected with the study of the Earth and outer space.

All information about the progress of the flight and the astronaut's condition was transmitted to Earth. Bykovsky could be seen on TV by people in many countries, for the telecasts from his ship were widely relayed. When Bykovsky was completing the second day of his space flight, *Vostok-6*, piloted by the world's first woman-astronaut, Valentina Tereshkova, soared into space. The minimum distance between their ships was about five kilometres.

WHAT WAS REMARKABLE ABOUT A WOMAN MAKING A SPACE FLIGHT?

It has shown that women can join men as equals in probing the expanses of the universe. Valentina Tereshkova's flight was longer in duration than the flights up to that time of all American astronauts put together. She stayed in outer space for 71 hours (June 16-19, 1963), making 48 circuits around the Earth and covering a distance of about 2 million kilometres.

Before her flight two versions had been envisaged: a minimum, to last 24 hours, and a maximum. Since the programme was being fulfilled successfully and Valentina was in excellent health, it was possible to accept the maximum version and extend the flight to three days.

Like her partner Valery Bykovsky, Valentina Tereshkova carried out a programme of observation, checked the operation of all the systems of the ship and maintained communication with Earth and with Bykovsky.

Telecasts from aboard her ship showing the sensational flight of the first woman astronaut in the world were seen by millions of televiewers in the USSR and abroad.

WHAT TRAINING DO ASTRONAUTS RECEIVE?

In preparation for space flight astronauts systematically go in for sports and undergo special training in a thermal vacuum chamber, in a centrifuge and on a vibro-bench. They also make a thorough study of the spacecraft and its equipment. They must be able to operate the instrumentation, maintain communication with the ground stations, orient themselves and determine the ship's position. They must also have a knowledge of astronomy, geophysics, biology and other sciences, since they are the first assistants of the ship's designers and specialists in space medicine; at the same time they are explorers of those realms of space which are becoming accessible to man.

Valentina Tereshkova, unlike the astronauts who preceded her, had not been a fighter pilot before beginning her space training. Her success showed that space flights could be performed by people who are simply physically fit, and not only by specially selected and trained fliers.

This important conclusion was borne out by the flight of *Voskhod-1*, the next Soviet spaceship.

The training of astronauts is based on the particular work required of each man in the crew. Obviously it is the commander, the pilot, who must meet the most rigid requirements. In selecting engineers, doctors and other members of the crew, requirements are somewhat less demanding, but in each case the character of the coming flight and difficulties which may be encountered are taken into account.

But every spaceman must undoubtedly be a person of remarkable self-possession, clear thinking and ability to act with determination in all situations.

A new problem arises in selecting the crew of a spaceship due to make a lengthy flight — that of psychological compatibility. This is very important. The psychological incompatibility of even two people who must remain for a lengthy period in a small cabin is fraught with the danger of serious complications during the flight.

Each manned space flight provides new information on the reactions of the human body to the conditions of orbital flight and necessitates changes in the training programme.

WHAT WAS NEW ABOUT THE FLIGHT OF THE VOSKHOD SPACESHIP?

On October 12, 1964, a powerful carrier rocket of new design put into orbit the *Voskhod*, the first spaceship to carry more than one person. The three-man crew consisted of Colonel Vladimir Komarov, the commander; Konstantin Feoktistov, M. Sc. (Technology); and Boris Yegorov, physician. The ship orbited the Earth 16 times and a day later soft-landed in the preset locality.

There were many new features about the *Voskhod*. In the first place the ship itself was an improvement over the ships of the *Vostok* series and it was launched by a more powerful carrier rocket. The new ship was heavier and carried a crew of three. In the earlier ships normal life-support conditions had to be maintained for a single astronaut, but now the problem had been solved for a crew of three.

This was the first time the astronauts did not wear spacesuits and the first time no catapult system was provided. Two retrorockets were mounted for re-entry from orbit, one being a reserve. This gave greater confidence, making it possible to put the ship into a higher orbit than before; in this case the apogee exceeded 400 kilometres. Re-entry and landing went off without the slightest hitch. To give an idea of the re-entry problem it might be mentioned that the temperature of the air surrounding the ship's shell reached 10,000°C, while inside the cabin there was a normal room temperature. The parachute system went into action at a height of 5 kilometres and a velocity of 220 metres per second. At the very surface of the Earth a new landing system was employed so that the ship touched down at practically zero velocity. Vladimir Komarov said the landing was softer than the stopping of a modern elevator. If necessary the *Voskhod* could have landed on water. It was unsinkable and had been designed for stability on water.

A new orientation system was tested in flight on the *Voskhod* in addition to the use of earlier systems.

The communication system was likewise improved and included intercom between the members of the crew. A new TV system was employed, making it possible to watch the astronauts in their cabin and also to transmit to Earth scenes observed in space.

The fact that the *Voskhod* crew consisted of specialists in three different fields made it possible to extend the scope of scientific observations and experiments, and to carry them out at a higher scientific level.

WHAT WERE THE AIMS OF THE FLIGHT OF *VOSKHOD-2*?

The main object was to carry out the experiment of having a person leave the ship in outer space.

Voskhod-2 carried a two-man crew: Colonel Pavel Belyaev, commander, and Lieutenant Colonel Alexei Leonov, second pilot. It was put into orbit on March 18, 1965, the maximum distance from the Earth's surface being 495 kilometres.

During the second circuit of the Earth, Alexei Leonov wearing a special spacesuit with autonomous life-support system made the first walk in space, moving away from the ship to a distance of 5 metres. After carrying out a number of scheduled experiments and observations, he returned safely to the ship. Leonov was in open space conditions for 20 minutes, including 10 minutes outside the ship.

For the walk in space, *Voskhod-2* was equipped with a special airlock system, the principal element being a chamber with two hatches, one opening into the ship's cabin, and the other into space. While in the airlock chamber, Leonov had to close the hatch to the ship before opening the one into space, and vice versa. This system made it possible to maintain the pressure within the cabin when one of the astronauts left the ship, thus ensuring normal conditions for members of the crew remaining on board.

After the successful completion of the walk in space, Belyaev and Leonov carried out extensive scientific investigations, the ship making another fifteen circuits of the Earth.

A new and extremely important experiment was also carried out during the re-entry and landing of *Voskhod-2*. For the first time the pilot landed the spacecraft indepen-

dently by means of manual controls. Pavel Belyaev carried out all the operations involved at the right time. After entering the denser layers of the atmosphere, the landing system was put into action and the ship made a soft landing.

The programme for the 24-hour flight was carried out in full.

It will be understood that this first experiment in which a man left the spaceship to enter an absolutely alien medium hazardous for his life required thorough engineering, medical and biological preparations and also great personal courage.

Millions of people saw this historic event on their TV screens. Besides the immense emotional impression, Leonov's walk in space amazed observers because of the astronaut's precise and smooth movements, the assurance to be felt in his actions, command of his body when he himself was actually an artificial satellite of the spaceship and sailed through space with it at a velocity of 28,000 kilometres an hour. This remarkable experiment demonstrated the correctness of the method and the reliability of the system enabling Leonov to walk out into space from the pressurised cabin and return. It likewise demonstrated the convenience and reliability of the spacesuit which protected the astronaut from being overheated by the sun, while not encumbering his movements.

Alexei Leonov proved that a person in space, outside the spacecraft, floating practically in a vacuum, can control his movements, that is, he can work. He can inspect his spaceship from outside, make repairs and if necessary move from one ship to another. This demonstrated the possibility of docking ships in space, building orbital stations in space and landing people on the Moon and on other planets of the solar system. Leonov's experiment showed that bold scientific prophesies have ceased to be the food of science fiction and are now becoming problems for engineering projects of the very near future.

WHAT IS THE SPACESUIT FOR USE OUTSIDE THE SHIP LIKE?

The spacesuit is a complicated engineering structure. It consists of a metal helmet with transparent visor, a multi-layer pressurised suit and pressurised gloves and shoes.

Oxygen for breathing is fed into the helmet from a special device. Within the helmet are arranged the microphone and earphones for radiocommunication with the ship and the Earth. The visor is provided with an electric heater to prevent the glass from sweating.

The suit consists of several layers, each having a different function. The outer layer is protective; it reflects the Sun's rays, ensuring a moderate temperature on the surface of the spacesuit. Next come the electric power and pressurising layers and then the heat insulating layer. Heat is practically not lost or gained through the layers of the spacesuit. The entire loss of body heat is effected through the ventilation system. Air at a temperature of 18°—20°C is constantly pumped into the spacesuit, escaping through a valve.

An autonomous electric system within the spacesuit provides the power required for radiocommunication and the sensors monitoring the vital activities of the human body in the conditions of space.

HOW ARE SOVIET ASTRONAUTS PROTECTED FROM RADIATION?

Various means and measures are employed. In the first place trajectories are so chosen as to prevent the spaceship passing through a zone of intense radiation. There is also a reliable system for forecasting solar activity which furnishes timely information on the radiation level along the flight trajectory. Finally, protective materials are employed in the construction of spaceships.

Soviet spaceships are protected against cosmic radiation. The intensity of such radiation is monitored by modern onboard instrumentation and the information is constantly transmitted to Earth. This makes it possible to keep constant watch on the radiation hazard. Astronauts are also provided with several types of personal dosimeters for research purposes and for monitoring the radiation level. Besides this, biological objects, such as bacteria, living cells, seeds and the like, provided with their own dosimeters may be placed in the ship's cabin. This makes it possible to check radiation intensity and also the biological effects of radiation.

Astronauts are supplied with chemical preparations to prevent radiation injury in case of a sharp rise in radiation intensity as a consequence, say, of a solar flare. If radiation becomes high enough to endanger the astronauts' health, emergency landing of the ship is provided for.

Timely warning of increased radiation hazard is provided by a special service which monitors solar activity and the intensity of cosmic radiation before and during flights and forecasts radiation intensity during different periods of time. Soviet scientists have developed a system for predicting solar flares and for choosing the safest time for a flight in this respect.

The flights of Soviet spaceships furnish convincing evidence that scientists and engineers have solved the difficult problem of ensuring radiation safety. This was also demonstrated by the birth of a daughter to the Titovs on September 23, 1963, and another daughter on August 17, 1965. On June 8, 1964, a daughter was born to the space couple Andrian Nikolayev and Valentina Tereshkova, and on April 12, 1965, a son was born to the Bykovskys. All the children were born healthy and are developing normally.

WHAT DOSE OF RADIATION HAVE ASTRONAUTS RECEIVED?

The dose received by astronauts who were protected by the spaceship's shell amounted to 10-15 millirads in 24 hours. This is very little and is evidence of the good protection provided. It corresponds to the standard weekly dose for people constantly working in conditions of ionising radiation, and is much lower than the maximum permissible level of radiation envisaged for astronauts.

When Leonov left the spaceship in a special suit for his walk in space the dose of radiation was increased, but this additional dose was not dangerous, and his total dose during the flight was less than a person receives when he undergoes an X-ray examination.

WHAT HAPPENED DURING THE FLIGHT OF THE SOYUZ-1 SPACESHIP?

On April 23, 1967, a new Soviet spaceship, the *Soyuz-1*, was launched on a test flight in orbit round the Earth. It was piloted by Colonel Komarov, Hero of the Soviet Union, the astronaut who commanded the first three-man spaceship.

During the flight which lasted over 24 hours Colonel Komarov carried out in full the assigned programme of testing the systems of the new ship in different conditions and assessed the ship's technical characteristics. He also performed the scientific experiments planned.

On April 24, after completing the test programme, Colonel Komarov was instructed to land. All operations involved in re-entry were carried out successfully and the ship safely passed through the most difficult and critical deceleration stage, the escape velocity being completely braked.

Nevertheless, according to preliminary information, when the main canopy of the ship's parachute was opened at a height of 7 kilometres, the lines fouled and the ship came down at a high speed, causing Colonel Komarov's death.

The untimely death of Vladimir Komarov, outstanding astronaut and spaceship test engineer, is a great loss for the entire Soviet people.

Through his work in testing spaceships Vladimir Komarov made an invaluable contribution to the development of space engineering.

SCIENTIFIC INVESTIGATIONS ARE NOW BEING CARRIED OUT BY MEANS OF DOZENS OF EARTH SATELLITES AND INTER-PLANETARY PROBES. IS THERE ANY NEED, THEN, FOR SENDING MEN INTO SPACE?

Yes, that is also necessary. The study of space by means of automatic laboratories of different types will be continued on a growing scale, but the real conquest of space requires the immediate participation of man. Phenomena and processes will undoubtedly be encountered in space of which we have no knowledge on the Earth and which cannot be reproduced in terrestrial laboratories. As man penetrates

ever deeper into space he will be sure to come up against many «unknowns». In these conditions man alone can make the correct decision; his potentialities in this respect are much superior to those of the most sophisticated cybernetic devices.

OF WHAT PRACTICAL USE WERE THE ASTRO- NAUTS' FLIGHTS?

They have already demonstrated that it is possible for man to fly to the Moon and neighbouring planets, and perform complex research work.

Neither Aeroflot nor any other airlines fear competition from spaceships so far, but in the future this competition is not to be ruled out. And the scientists can now expect to find answers to many secrets of Nature in outer space.

The exploration of space is only beginning but fundamental discoveries have already been made. The conquest of space will provide information on how the world is made, and it is difficult to foresee what the unknown has in store for us. For instance, prospecting for useful minerals would be more effective if we could have a glance at our planet's past. Astronautics affords this opportunity. Perhaps by studying Mars we can find out what condition the Earth was in many million years ago. Such space investigations could be of immense importance not only for science, but also for practical purposes—for improving people's life.

WHO CAN BECOME AN ASTRONAUT?

Practically anyone, man or woman. You only have to be physically fit and possess definite knowledge and skills, gained by special and, so far, complex training. This training enables astronauts to overcome successfully difficulties due to the specific conditions of space flights, thus making them most effective from the scientific viewpoint.

Years will pass. Rocketry will advance further, space doctors will comprehensively study the reactions of organisms to space flight conditions. Then demands on astronauts' health will probably be less exacting. With time, flights in the universe may become as common as trips by air are today.

ARE MANY SOVIET YOUNG PEOPLE KEEN ON BECOMING ASTRONAUTS?

Countless young people dream of becoming cosmonauts as evidenced by the letters flooding newspaper offices and scientific and public organisations. These letters began to pour in immediately after the launching of the first sputnik, long before the first manned flight. They also emphasise the great interest in sciences and sports connected in one way or another with astronautics.

There are many young astronauts' clubs in the USSR. One is at the Moscow Young Pioneer Palace. Very popular among young people are books about space flights and research conducted with the help of rockets and satellites.

WHAT DO SOVIET ASTRONAUTS THINK OF THE SUCCESES OF THEIR AMERICAN COLLEAGUES?

Like all Soviet people, they hail every success of their American colleagues, take a keen interest in the difficulties they have had to overcome, and admire the courage of the American space conquerors. The Soviet astronauts consider that the Americans' successes, like their own achievements, belong to all mankind, because space flights pursue the common goal of man's further penetration into the secrets of nature.

HOW WERE PHOTOGRAPHS MADE OF THE FAR SIDE OF THE MOON?

As everybody knows, it is always the same side of the Moon that is turned toward the Earth. People were able to see the far side of the Moon, and not all of it at that, only when the *Luna-3* probe photographed it in October 1959, processed the photographs and for the first time in the history of science transmitted TV images of another celestial body from space to Earth. An area of over 10 million square kilometres was photographed. This made it possible to compile an atlas of the far side of the Moon with hundreds of relief features which Soviet astronomers named, thus availing themselves of the right of discovery. Among them are

the Sea of Dreams and the Sea of Moscow, the Soviet mountain chain, and Tsiolkovsky, Joliot-Curie, Lomonosov, Mendeleev and Edison craters.

The first photographs of the far side of the Moon furnished information of enormous scientific importance. Investigation of that part of the Moon's surface which remained unphotographed was carried out on July 20, 1965, by means of the *Zond-3* probe. This probe was launched for comprehensive scientific studies in the conditions of long-distance and lengthy space flight. Nevertheless, the launching date and trajectory were fixed so as to make it possible to photograph the rest of the invisible side of the Moon as the probe passed it.

Using the apparatus on board *Zond-3*, 25 photographs of the lunar surface were obtained. The photo-TV assembly transmitted each frame with 1,100-line scanning. This provided distinct photographs of the far side of the Moon which were very rich in detail and practically every bit as good as photographs of the visible side of the Moon made in terrestrial observatories.

The new photographs fully bore out the substantial difference in the relief of the far side of the Moon as compared to the visible side, first revealed in the photographs taken by *Luna-3*. Whereas on the visible hemisphere the so-called seas, that is, the darker, low-lying plains, cover about 40 per cent of the surface, the «seas» on the invisible hemisphere cover less than 10 per cent of the surface—that side is, in general, brighter and more mountainous.

This asymmetry of the lunar surface, like the origin of the lunar craters, the composition of lunar rocks and many other questions are still to be explained. Still there can be no doubt that now when astronomers have obtained information about practically the entire surface of the Moon, the unravelling of many questions has been brought much nearer.

WHAT PROGRAMME WAS PERFORMED BY THE MANOEUVRABLE SPACECRAFTS POLYOT-1 AND POLYOT-2?

In accordance with the programme of outer space exploration and improvement of spaceships, the Soviet Union is

developing spacecraft capable of performing extensive manoeuvres in all directions during orbital flight.

This work helped solve the problem of steering spaceships in flight, of directing them to desired regions to obtain scientific information.

In keeping with this programme, on November 1, 1963, the Soviet Union launched *Polyot-1* and on April 12, 1964, *Polyot-2*, manoeuvrable spacecrafts, equipped with special devices and engines to ensure their stabilisation and performance of extensive manoeuvres in the space around the Earth. They made considerable manoeuvres sideways, up and down, and changed their plane of orbit.

As a result of the test programme's fulfilment an important step was made in further study and conquest of outer space.

FOR WHAT PURPOSE WERE THE SOVIET SCIENTIFIC SPACE STATIONS OF THE ELECTRON-TYPE?

It is known that the Earth is surrounded by radiation belts, which the cosmonauts will have to cross on their way to the Moon and other planets. Therefore, it is important to conduct a careful study of these radiation belts. It is essential to establish the energy of the particles comprising the belts, the interdependence between the radiation halo, level of solar activity and other factors.

Equipped with this information it will be possible to determine the safer routes within the belts and devise the most effective means of biological protection during flight in outer space. It is also particularly important to investigate the radiation zones because such zones may exist not only in the proximity of the Earth, but also around other planets with rather strong magnetic fields.

With these aims in view *Electron-1* and *Electron-2* were launched on January 30, 1963. Both stations were orbited with the help of one powerful carrier-rocket. The orbit of *Electron-1* was 406 kilometres in the perigee and 7,100 km in the apogee, and the orbit of *Electron-2* was correspondingly 460 km and 68,200 km.

On July 11, 1964, *Electron-3* and *Electron-4* were put into different orbits, also with the help of one carrier-rocket,

for similar scientific aims. The orbits of these stations were: *Electron-3*, 405 km in the perigee and 7,040 km in the apogee, and *Electron-4*, correspondingly 459 km and 66,235 km.

The paths of these stations repeatedly crossed both the inner and outer radiation belts. The stations *Electron-2* and *Electron-4* also crossed a region filled with electron currents, lying beyond the limits of the outer belt. This region was designated the outermost belt of charged particles. This gave important information of radiation danger at different altitudes.

In addition, a variety of scientific investigations were conducted, including the study of galactic radiowaves, which was first realised with the help of the sputniks, the measurement of the magnetic field, the determination of the composition of the upper atmosphere, ionospheric characteristics, etc.

WHAT WAS THE PROGRAMME OF THE ZOND PROBES?

Zond-1 was launched on April 2, 1964, with the object of making further headway in organising a space system for long-range interplanetary flights. Radio commands transmitted from the Earth switched over the apparatus aboard *Zond-1* and the elements of the power supply systems. The commands set the operational conditions of the stellar orientation systems which were adjusted by the control system of the space station.

The investigations conducted with the help of *Zond-1* have revealed that the stellar orientation and correction systems have fulfilled the set programme of work in outer-space conditions.

It has now been established that it is possible to solve problems pertaining to precise correction of trajectories followed by automatic space apparatus in flight.

Zond-2 was launched on November 30, 1964. This was the first time that electro-jet plasma engines were tested in the conditions of space flight. Such motors were used on *Zond-2* as control elements in the orientation system. The thrust of a plasma engine is easily regulated over a

wide range by varying the electric power supply. It also has a big work potential. These factors make the use of plasma engines very promising for space devices sent on lengthy flights.

Zond-3 was launched on July 18, 1965. The object of the flight was to carry out scientific investigations in distant interplanetary space, work out and test onboard apparatus and photograph the far side of the Moon.

Zond-3 was fitted out with instrumentation for studying the magnetic properties of near space and the interplanetary medium, the solar wind, low-frequency galactic radio emission, and micrometeorite particles, as well as for investigating the infrared and ultraviolet spectra of the lunar surface. Along with these studies tests have been made of plasma engines and also of certain materials in the conditions of outer space.

Before flying off into the expanses of space, *Zond-3* photographed the far side of the Moon. Photographing and transmitting the pictures to Earth was done with a new, small-size photo-TV system designed for operation in the conditions of lengthy flight.

Photographs were taken from a distance of approximately 10,000 kilometres, the operation requiring somewhat more than an hour. The distance at which the photographs were taken was optimal for covering a considerable part of the lunar surface and obtaining photographs of sufficiently large scale.

The 25 photographs taken were transmitted by television with 1,100-line scanning, instead of the 625-line scanning of the conventional TV set. It required 34 minutes to transmit each frame. The photo-TV set is designed for transmitting pictures of the planets from distances of hundreds of millions of kilometres. During this flight, however, the apparatus will not photograph the planets but will repeat the transmission of the lunar photographs from great distances. The launching time selected precludes the possibility of *Zond-3* nearing any planet. But there can be no doubt that the experience gained through the flight of *Zond-3* will be made use of in subsequent launchings for photographing distant planets.

WHAT IS THE PURPOSE OF THE PROTON SATELLITES?

The satellites of the *Proton* series weigh 12.2 tons—the heaviest in the world launched by the beginning of 1967. *Proton-1* was put into orbit on July 16, 1965; *Proton-2*, on November 2, 1965; and *Proton-3*, in June 1966. A new carrier-rocket was used which developed a thrust of 60 million horsepower, three times the power of the rocket which put into orbit *Vostok-1* with Yuri Gagarin on board.

The scientific programme of the *Proton* satellites covers a number of fundamental problems of the physics of ultra-high-energy cosmic rays.

For over 30 years physicists of the whole world have been intensively studying cosmic rays. Their investigations have led to discoveries which reveal the immense diversity of the elementary particles composing the matter of the universe.

In order to penetrate further into the innermost depths of elementary particles physicists must have particles of higher and higher energy. But when primary cosmic rays of high and ultrahigh energy enter the atmosphere they collide with the nuclei of its atoms, and it is only secondary cosmic rays, the product of these collisions, which reach the Earth's surface. Consequently it is practically impossible to study primary cosmic rays in terrestrial conditions. Physicists, it is true, have found a partial solution: they have built gigantic accelerators where particles are accelerated to an energy of several tens of thousands of millions of electron-volts. Nevertheless, in addition to the fact that such accelerators are extremely expensive there is a limit, for technological reasons, to the energy which can be imparted to particles: approximately a million million electron-volts, and apparently such accelerators will not be built in the near future. On the other hand there are particles in the stream of cosmic rays reaching the Earth from the depths of the Galaxy which have energies of a hundred million million electron-volts and even a million million million electron volts, that is, more powerful by far than can be obtained in terrestrial conditions with the most sophisticated accelerators.

From this it becomes clear that investigations of ultra-high-energy particles must be carried out beyond the at-

mosphere by means of Earth satellites. Up till recently, however, there were no carrier rockets sufficiently powerful to put into orbit the required research instrumentation, which is extremely heavy.

The designing of a powerful new carrier rocket in the Soviet Union enabled Soviet scientists to develop apparatus unique in size and characteristics. It is capable of automatically classifying particles according to their energy—from 10 to a hundred million million electron-volts; select from the stream of cosmic rays particles having very high energies; measure their energy; determine the nature of the primary particle, that is, separate protons from the heavier atomic nuclei and determine to what chemical elements heavy nuclei belong; study the characteristics of their interaction with the atomic nuclei of matter; and also carry out other investigations.

To give an idea of the scale of the experiment and the complexity of the scientific apparatus, it might be mentioned that the instrumentation of *Proton-1* was designed to register some 180 characteristics, and that its electronic units contained about 9,000 transistor elements.

Even the primary processing of the vast amount of scientific information obtained from the first *Proton* satellites enabled physicists to draw a number of extremely interesting conclusions of great scientific importance.

The investigations carried out by means of the *Proton* apparatus constitute an entirely new step in the study of cosmic rays. The direct determination in space of the chemical composition of primary cosmic rays and their energy distribution should help in finding out how the «accelerators» in the depths of the Galaxy «operate» in imparting such tremendous energy to particles. These investigations should bring us nearer to understanding the phenomenal processes governing the development of the Galaxies, and perhaps, the entire Universe.

WHAT SCIENTIFIC PROBLEMS WERE SOLVED BY THE VENERA-2 AND VENERA-3 PROBES?

Venus is the brightest star in the sky, but although it is the nearest planet to the Earth, our knowledge of it

is very limited. It is covered with a thick cloud layer, which even the most powerful telescopes are unable to penetrate.

Recent developments in radar and radioastronomy have made it possible to unravel some of the riddles of Venus. But radioastronomical techniques can only be used for studying a limited number of questions, and furthermore, they often fail to give definite information. Therefore it is only a direct study of the physical properties of Venus by means of interplanetary probes that can throw light on many unsolved problems.

It was with this object that *Venera-2* and *Venera-3* were launched on November 12 and November 16, 1965. These probes carried instrumentation for determining the chemical composition of the Venusian atmosphere and its reflecting and absorbing properties in respect to infrared, ultraviolet and radio emission, as well as other apparatus.

The successive launching of two *Venera* probes with such a short interval is explained by the fact that the most advantageous position of Venus with respect to the Earth occurs only once in one and a half years and lasts for a period of one month.

Twenty-six communication sessions were carried out with *Venera-2*, and 63 with *Venera-3*. During these sessions telemetric information was transmitted to Earth concerning operation of the onboard systems; trajectory measurements were made and the necessary radio commands were given, and the readings of onboard scientific instrumentation were received.

On March 1, 1966, *Venera-3* landed a device on the surface of Venus bearing the national emblem of the USSR. Venus was the next celestial body after the Moon on which a man-made spacecraft landed.

Other objects of the flights of the Venus probes were to develop techniques of starting from an Earth satellite orbit, put an interplanetary probe into a preset trajectory, maintain radio communication over vast distances, correct the trajectory and ensure normal operation of the complicated onboard instrumentation, as well as explore interplanetary space along the trajectory from Earth to Venus and study the nature of this planet, which is the nearest to the Earth.

The greater part of these objects were accomplished.

HOW DO THE SOVIET COMMUNICATION SATELLITE OF THE MOLNIA-1 TYPE OPERATE?

Launching of the *Molnia-1* communication satellites in April and October 1965 was an important step in developing long-distance two-way TV and multi-channel telephone communications via space. Both satellites were put into a highly-elliptical orbit with an apogee of about 40,000 kilometres and a perigee of about 500 kilometres. As a result of this choice of orbit, the satellites are farthest from the Earth's surface when they pass over Soviet territory. This makes it possible to «see» the satellites and use them for transmission, say, between Moscow and Vladivostok for a lengthy period.

A most important feature of the *Molnia-1* satellites is the specially designed space transmitter with which they are equipped. This transmitter operates continuously and has a capacity of 40 watts, 10 times more than the American *Early Bird* communication satellite. This feature of the *Molnia-1* satellites made it possible to greatly simplify ground equipment and substantially reduce its construction and operating costs.

Terrestrial equipment includes powerful radio stations for the reception and transmission of information, highly effective antenna sets and systems for directing them, as well as radio means ensuring operation of the communication-satellite tracking system, and apparatus for registering telemetric signals from the satellites providing information on the operation of all onboard devices and the satellites' distance and flight velocity.

Millions of people in the Soviet Union and a number of European countries have seen TV programmes relayed by the *Molnia-1* satellites, and thousands of people have talked with their near ones through space. Experimental transmissions of colour television from Moscow to Paris via *Molnia-1* have also been successful.

The establishment of reliable, super-long-distance radio and TV communications by means of the *Molnia-1* satellites has revealed new possibilities in using space technology for the immediate needs of the population of the USSR and other countries.

HOW IS COOPERATION ORGANISED BETWEEN SOVIET AND FOREIGN SCIENTISTS IN OUTER SPACE EXPLORATION?

At present, Soviet scientists cooperate with their colleagues abroad through COSPAR, scientific organisation for the study of outer space, as well as through the International Astronautical Federation. They exchange space research results, information about launchings, the results of observations of rockets and satellites and so on. Three world centres have been set up—in the United States, the Soviet Union and Britain—which keep scientists informed of the results of their colleagues' work. Reports on the most interesting research projects are read at annual symposiums of COSPAR. Papers on rocket-dynamics and astro-dynamics and the results of research relating to astronautics are discussed at meetings of the International Astronautical Federation.

Soviet scientists are collaborating with scientists of Bulgaria, Cuba, Czechoslovakia, the German Democratic Republic, Hungary, Mongolia, Poland, Rumania and other Socialist countries, as well as with scientists of Holland, the Federal Republic of Germany, Finland, France, Greece, Italy, Sweden, the United States and many other countries.

WHAT IS THE PURPOSE OF BILATERAL AGREEMENTS BETWEEN THE USSR AND OTHER COUNTRIES ON SPACE INVESTIGATIONS?

Space investigations are of the greatest scientific and technological value for all mankind. However, carrying out a broad programme of space studies requires immense expenditures, the efforts of many scientists and the coordinated action of all countries engaged in space exploration.

With this aim in view, countries conclude bilateral and multilateral agreements; this promotes better coordination of research and more rational and effective application of each signatory's means and efforts in the exploration of space.

The Soviet Union and the United States collaborate in space studies on the basis of an agreement reached between the USSR Academy of Sciences and the United States National Aeronautics and Space Administration. Under the agreement the two countries are to collaborate primarily in the use of Earth satellites for meteorological purposes, for organising communications, compiling a magnetic map of the Earth and developing the science of terrestrial magnetism.

In the field of meteorology it has been decided to carry out a broad exchange of information obtained both by conventional methods and by means of satellites. It is understood that both sides will improve their experimental meteorological satellites with a view to subsequently going over to the agreed launching of operational satellites, the meteorological information obtained to be quickly communicated to interested countries.

World meteorological centres have been set up in Moscow and Washington and a direct communication channel has been organised between them. The channel went into operation in 1964 and provides round-the-clock transmission of important information on atmospheric conditions in the form of photographs, facsimiles and telegraph signals. The cost of maintaining the channel is shared equally by the two countries. The Soviet Union and the United States have agreed that in future all other interested countries may benefit from the advantages of the channel.

Great prospects for the joint work of Soviet and French scientists have been created by the Soviet-French agreement on cooperation in the exploration and conquest of space for peaceful purposes concluded in June 1966 in Moscow.

The agreement envisages Soviet-French cooperation in space exploration, including the launching of a French satellite by the Soviet Union, space meteorology and the study of space communication by means of Earth satellites. Provision is likewise made for the realisation of joint projects and experiments, particularly in television, as well as for the exchange of scientific information, delegations and specialists to be given practical training, and for the holding of conferences and symposiums.

The agreement notes that cooperation between the USSR and France in space studies is an important step in developing scientific and technological cooperation in Europe.

HOW WAS LUNA-9 SOFT-LANDED ON THE MOON?

There can be no question that the most effective method of studying the Moon is to land a probe on its surface carrying a set of scientific and photo-telemetric apparatus, followed by manned landing.

The difficulty in carrying this out is that due to the absence of an atmosphere on the Moon it is impossible to apply the tested and reliable methods of soft landing used by Soviet astronauts. The lunar spacecraft cannot be decelerated by atmospheric resistance and the use of parachutes is also ruled out.

A soft landing on the Moon can only be accomplished by means of a retrorocket and it must be fired at exactly the right moment. Deceleration must be commenced relatively close to the Moon and must end exactly at the lunar surface. If the spacecraft's velocity is decelerated to zero too soon, it will hang for a moment over the surface of the Moon and then fall and break to pieces. If its velocity is not decelerated in time, it will hit the Moon and also be destroyed.

Consequently in order to accomplish soft landing of the probe on the Moon a number of difficult problems had to be solved.

On February 3, 1966, the 100-kilogramme *Luna-9* made the first-ever soft landing on the Moon, coming down in the Ocean of Storms between the craters of Galileo and Cavalieri.

After the successful landing, the lobes of the protective shell opened like the sections of a cut orange rind, and the lunar landscape became visible to the television camera. The antenna rods were shot out and in 4 minutes 10 seconds the first radio communication session began; in 7 hours *Luna-9* began its first TV reportage.

During the next three days the probe transmitted to Earth TV views of the lunar surface, and various telemetric information.

As a result of this experiment, the hypothesis that the Moon was covered with a layer of dust was disproved. There was no longer any apprehension that a lunar spacecraft might be buried in the dust. At the landing site, at least, the lunar ground proved to be quite hard, uneven and covered with

scattered stones and craters of different sizes—from tiny holes to large depressions.

The determination of the intensity of radiation on the lunar surface carried out by *Luna-9* is also of great value.

On December 24, 1966, another probe—*Luna-13*—made a soft landing on the Moon in the Ocean of Storms about 400 km from *Luna-9*.

Luna-13 carried instrumentation of new and improved design. It transmitted to Earth new panorama pictures of the lunar landscape, tested the upper layer of lunar matter and continued investigations begun by *Luna-9*.

HOW WERE THE MOON SATELLITES PUT INTO ORBIT?

On March 31, 1966, a powerful carrier rocket put a heavy Earth satellite into orbit with an apogee of 250 km and a perigee of 200 km. From this satellite a space rocket was launched and the latter put the *Luna-10* probe into orbit as a satellite of the Moon, with a maximum height of 1,017 km. above the lunar surface and a minimum height of 350 km. This was the first artificial Moon satellite.

After that two more probes were put into orbit round the Moon: *Luna-11* on August 28, 1966, whose minimum distance from the Moon is about 160 km, and maximum distance, about 1,200 km, and the *Luna-12* on October 25, 1966, minimum distance 100 km and maximum distance, 1,740 km.

The lunar satellites are intended for investigating the Moon and lunar space, specifically, the Moon's gravitational field, gamma and X-ray radiation of the lunar surface, meteoric conditions, intensity of long-wave radio emission and radiation intensity. Launching the lunar satellites made it possible to test and develop techniques for the control of space vehicles while being put into lunar orbits. One of the missions of the *Luna-12* probe was to take photographs of the lunar surface from a relatively close distance and transmit them to Earth.

HOW MANY SPACECRAFT HAVE BEEN LAUNCHED IN THE USSR?

By the beginning of 1967 some 200 satellites, spaceships and interplanetary probes had been launched.

Each type of satellite is intended for a definite period of operation, varying from a few weeks to two years.

Satellites designed for testing systems to be subsequently used on manned spaceships, and satellites for studying the effect of lengthy space flight on lower organisms, plants and insects are returned to Earth after completion of their programme. Other satellites continue to orbit the Earth after completion of their programmes and exhaustion of their power supply, but as dead bodies. In time they gradually lose height, enter the denser layers of the atmosphere and burn up.

The length of life of satellites which have ceased operating varies over a great range, depending on the character of their orbits and their own weight and shape. *Kosmos-100* will be in existence about 10 years; *Electron-1* and *Electron-3*, at least 200 years; and *Kosmos-80*, *Kosmos-81*, *Kosmos-82*, *Kosmos-83* and *Kosmos-84* will remain in orbit for over a thousand years.

The number of Soviet spacecraft launched for diverse scientific purposes is constantly increasing, as is the period of their active existence and the volume of information received from them.

Culture and Arts

WHAT DO THE CULTURAL TRANSFORMATIONS IN THE USSR MEAN?

In his speech at a youth meeting in 1920 Lenin noted that the national economy had to be reconstructed on an up-to-date technical level. To be able to cope with this task it was necessary to study. Lenin stressed that one could become a communist only after one had enriched oneself with the wealth of knowledge accumulated by mankind. He called on the youth to select and carefully preserve everything useful from the old cultural legacy in order to create a new, socialist culture on this basis.

That was a colossal task, if we remember that three-quarters of tsarist Russia's population were illiterate, while its economy, backward as it had been, was devastated by the imperialist and civil wars.

Tens of millions of adults attended lessons in towns, villages, at factories and farms.

Both secondary and higher schooling was radically reorganised. Tuition became free and instruction was conducted in the pupils' native languages. The children of workers and

farmers studying at universities and colleges received state grants.

Many small peoples had obtained a written language for the first time. Beginning with 1930 compulsory 4-year universal primary education was introduced.

The Soviet people fought illiteracy and mastered the heights of culture and science with great enthusiasm, despite the lack of teachers, textbooks and even writing paper.

Thirst for knowledge was tremendous.

The Soviet Government and the Communist Party did everything to promote education. In 1933-37 alone more than 20,000 schools were built.

Compulsory seven-year (later eight-year) education was introduced in the 1940's. It is envisaged to introduce universal secondary 10-year education by 1970.

Illiteracy has been done away with in our country. In 1966, 210,000 schools in the Soviet Union had 48.2 million pupils, there were 4,000 specialised secondary schools with 4 million students and 767 universities and colleges with 4.1 million students.

Deep cultural transformations made it possible in the course of building socialism in the USSR to accomplish the following major targets: bring the achievements of culture to the masses; develop a new stratum of intellectuals from among the workers and peasants; create a new multi-national socialist culture which takes over and develops the best achievements of the old culture; finally, establish a socialist ideology in Soviet society.

A new human character, the conscientious and well-educated builder of socialism and communism was created.

WHAT IS SOCIALIST REALISM?

Soviet art and literature owe much to both Russian and world classics. However, being a product of the Revolution, Soviet culture has made its own important contribution to this heritage. The method of socialist realism, the cardinal requirement of which is to show the truth of life in its revolutionary development, is most effective in enabling the artist to reveal truthfully man's inner world. Reflecting reality in all the multiplicity of its contradictions, socialist realism at the same time makes it possible to perceive, give

due emphasis and do artistic justice to such phenomena, process and characters which best express the tendency of progressive development.

It would be wrong to think that it restricts the diversity of artistic individuality, style, etc. Every artist of socialist realism has his own experience, his chosen subjects and style, his own creative individuality. And yet he is united with his colleagues by common ideological and aesthetic principles. The general criterion of the value of artistic activity stems from the common goal of the Soviet people—the building of communism, and the all-round individual development of every member of society is an essential feature of communism.

The content and value of true art is in everything that helps human individuality to grow, broadens its horizons, inspires it with lofty ideals, uplifts it morally and intellectually, cultivates an aesthetic perception of the world, helps better to see the good and evil and to react accordingly—all that develops the personality, promotes an independent and active attitude to life and brings out truly human traits in man. All these features are characteristic of the works of socialist realism. Socialist realism has become an effective creative method both in the USSR and other socialist countries, and it is being further perfected in the course of building a new society.

WHAT IS FREEDOM OF CREATIVE ENDEAVOUR?

The Soviet artist, needless to say, is free in the choice of theme and artistic form. However, society cannot remain indifferent to what a novel or a picture preaches. The people deem it their right to demand of the writer, artist, film or play producer, of all men of the arts and literature, that they produce works which appeal to what is good in human nature and help develop man's better qualities.

Soviet society rejects and condemns works which preach war, incite racial and religious prejudice, or savour of crime, sex, lust for wealth and egoistic indulgence.

In the USSR, the artist is always free to follow the dictates of his mind and heart.

WHO ARE THE MOST POPULAR /SOVIET WRITERS?

The towering figure in Soviet literature is beyond doubt Maxim Gorky (A. M. Peshkov, 1868-1936), the father of Soviet literature and a writer of world renown. His works have been printed and reprinted countless times in the USSR, and have been translated into most languages.

The writings of Alexei Tolstoi (1883-1945), too, enjoy enormous popularity. With great literary skill and force he portrayed the decay of old Russia and showed the destinies of the Russian intellectuals in the Revolution (a trilogy *The Ordeal*, and others). He has written some of the finest historical novels (*Peter I*), popular science books (*Engineer Garin's Hyperboloid*, *Aelita*) as well as many plays, short stories, articles and critical essays. Alexei Tolstoi is recognised as a splendid stylist and authority on the Russian language.

Mikhail Sholokhov has won world fame by his great epics, *And Quiet Flows the Don* and *Virgin Soil Upturned*; his story, *The Fate of a Man*, and other works, amazing for their broad grasp of life, dramatic intensity, their profound and truthful portrayal of many-sided characters and their language.

The turbulent years of the Civil War (1918-20), when the fate of the Revolution was decided, inspired many Soviet writers.

The Iron Flood by Serafimovich (1863-1949) was one of the first important works of the new Soviet literature. A veteran of the Civil War, commissar of the famous division commanded by Chapayev, the writer Furmanov (1891-1926), in his novel *Chapayev*, made immortal the name of this heroic commander, who rose from the people's midst. It was to the Civil War in the Far East that Fadeyev (1901-56) devoted his early novels, *The Nineteen* and *The Last of the Udege*. His consummate knowledge of the material, his profound psychological insight and lucid style at once put him into the front ranks of Soviet writers. Shortly after the war he produced the well-known novel, *Young Guard*, in which he paid tribute to young Soviet patriots who fought heroically against the fascists on nazi-occupied territory. The collapse of philistine individualism among Russian intellectuals and the movement of the best part of the intellectuals to the side of the Revolution are reflected in the novels of Fedin, who today heads the Soviet Writers' Union (*Cities and Years*, *First Joys*, *No Ordinary Summer*).

It was the constructive efforts of the people in the early years of Soviet rule, the breaking down of old attitudes and shaping of a new psychology in new conditions that were portrayed in the novels of Gladkov (1883-1958); (*Cement, Energy*), Shaginyan (*Hydrocentral*), Leonov (*Sot, Skutarevsky*).

Ilya Ehrenburg's writing career has undergone many changes which, contradictory as they were, reflected the waverings of some sections of the old Russian intelligentsia during the Revolution. Ehrenburg's later novels deal with Soviet reality (*Out of Chaos, Without Pausing for Breath*), as well as with the contemporary West (*D. E. Trust, The Fall of Paris*). During World War II Ehrenburg was very popular for his anti-fascist articles and pamphlets.

To the noted writers of the older generation also belong Paustovsky, the author of a large number of historical and biographical novels and novelets, distinguished for their keen observation of life and their masterful style; Forsh (historical novels), Novikov-Prihoi (sea stories and novels), Shishkov (*The Ugryum River, Pugachev*), Prishvin (novels and stories about nature), Babel (*The Mounted Army*, a novel, and stories about Odessa), Veresayev (novels and stories about the intellectuals), Ilf and Petrov (*Twelve Chairs* and *The Golden Calf*).

The rise and development of Soviet literature in the Republics of Central Asia is associated with such well-known names as Auezov (Kazakhstan), Khamza (Uzbekistan), Kerbabayev (Turkmenia), Aini (Tajikistan). Among the fathers of Soviet literature in Republics with well-developed national literary traditions have been Djabarly (Azerbaijan), Demirchyan (Armenia) and Upit (Latvia).

An impressive group of writers has joined the ranks of Soviet literature within the past 25-30 years. Their works cover every aspect of life—past, present and future. It is natural that a considerable part of their writings should deal with the last war and the subsequent period, which has been rich in events of world historic importance. This group includes Simonov (*Days and Nights, The Living and the Dead*, short stories, poems, plays), Polevoi (*The Story of a Real Man*), Katayev (*A White Sail Gleams, For the Power of the Soviets*), Kaverin (*Two Captains, The Open Book*), Lacis (*The Son of a Fisherman, Storm*), Gouchar (*The Standard-Bearers, Man and Arms*), Vershigora (*People with a Clear Conscience*), Wasilewska (*The Rainbow*), Kazakevich (*Star*,

Spring on the Oder, House on the Square), Nikolayeva (*Reaping Time, Battle on the Road*), Kochetov (*The Zhurbins, The Yershov Brothers, Secretary of the Regional Committee*), Panova (*Fellow Travellers, Serezha*), Granin (*Those Who Seek*), Kozhevnikov (*Meet Baluyev*).

Wide recognition, too, is enjoyed by the works of many other writers, among them Aksenov, Antonov, Andronnikov, Baklanov, German, Inber, Ketlinskaya, Lavrenev, Nekrasov, Nikulin, Nilin, Pavlenko, Perventsev, Rytheu, Smirnov, Semin, Serebryakova, Sobolev, Soloukhin, Tendryakov (Russian Federation); Galan, Rybak, Smolich, Sobko, Yanovsky (Ukraine); Bryl, Lynkov, Khadkevich, Bykov, (Byelorussia); Mukanov, Musrepov (Kazakhstan); Kahhar, Rashidov (Uzbekistan); Gamsakhurdia, Gulia, Lordkipanidze (Georgia); Davtyan, Kochar, Sevuntz (Armenia); Gusein (Azerbaijan); Aitmatov (Kirghizia); Sakse, Sudrabkaln (Latvia); Venclova, Cvirka (Lithuania), Liberecht, Smuul (Estonia).

The most popular satirists and humorists are Zoshchenko, Mikhalkov, Lench, Ardov, Vishnya, Oleynik, Dykhovichny, Slobodskoy, Polyakov, Laskin.

WHICH WRITERS ARE MOST POPULAR WITH CHILDREN AND THE YOUTH?

For many years now *How the Steel Was Tempered* by Ostrovsky (1904-36) has been Soviet youth's favourite novel. Since 1935, when it first appeared, this novel has been published 290 times in 52 languages of the Soviet Union, with the total number of copies exceeding 9 million. It has also been published in many countries outside the USSR. This novel, in which Ostrovsky created noble, pure and inspiring characters of fighters for the Revolution, was written when he was bedridden, his health completely shattered by the grave wounds he suffered in the Civil War. (When a 15-year-old youth, he fought in the ranks of the Red Army.)

Makarenko (1888-1939), a teacher by profession, organised and took charge of a colony for street waifs and juvenile delinquents in the first years after the Revolution. He gave a brilliant description of the checkered life of this colony in his book, *The Road to Life*. In this book, as well as in his other literary works (*March of the Year 1930, Learning to*

Live) Makarenko struck a new note in education, evolving and expounding methods of child education in the new conditions of socialist society.

It is perhaps Gaidar (1904-41)—like Ostrovsky he fought in the Civil War when a youngster, commanding a regiment at the age of 16—who wrote the best books for young readers. At the very outset of the last war Gaidar went to the front as a volunteer and fell in battle fighting the fascists. His novels and stories—*The School*, *Timur and His Team*, *Revolutionary War Council*, *Top Secret*, *The Fate of a Drummer*—have been republished many times and have been filmed.

Splendid nursery rhymes and verses for little children have been written by Chukovsky and Marshak (1887-1964). Other children's writers and poets of note are Zhitkov, Ilyin, Bianki, Kvitko, Kassil, Barto, Mikhalkov, Oseyeva and Nosov.

WHO ARE THE BEST KNOWN SOVIET POETS?

The most popular Soviet poet is Mayakovsky (1893-1930), who attained, according to Aragon, the highest poetic skill in the epoch of the greatest socialist Revolution and devoted his genius to that Revolution. The impact of Mayakovsky on the development of all multi-national Soviet poetry and revolutionary poetry in other lands has been tremendous.

Blok (1880-1921) in his early works was a leading exponent of symbolism in Russia. Afterwards, he hailed the Revolution and the downfall of the old world (*Twelve*). Yesenin (1885-1925), the son of a Ryazan peasant, was a profound and sensitive artist. He was a poet of great lyric vigour, his best verse breathing love for his native soil and its scenery, and welcoming the sprouts of new life in Russia. There are, too, notes of the soul's desolation in his verse reflecting the artist's tragic clash with reality, a reality which somehow he failed to grasp in all its complexity. Of great impact has been the poetry of Demyan Bedny (1883-1945). Written in the lusty language of the people and abounding in humour, his songs, verses, satirical sketches and pamphlets in verse were read and memorised by millions of people all over the land.

A great contribution to Soviet poetry has been made by such prominent poets of the older generation as Antokolsky,

Marshak, Aseyev, Tikhonov (Russian Federation); Rylsky, Tychina (Ukraine), Kolas, Kupala (Byelorussia), Akopyan, Isaakian (Armenia), Tabidze, Leonidze (Georgia) and others.

Eminent among the early Soviet poets, born of the Revolution, have been Bagritsky, Bezymensky, Utkin, Zharov and Svetlov. Their poetry was a tribute to the heroic labour zeal of the first years of socialist construction. They were the favourite poets of youth in the twenties and thirties.

One of the leading contemporary poets is Tvardovsky. His poem, *Vasili Terkin*, in which he paints the vivid and compelling character of a Soviet soldier, deeply human, courageous, with native wit and humour, earned him nationwide popularity, and inspired imitation. His poem, *Beyond the Horizons*, one of the major works of post-war poetry, is a philosophical commentary on our time.

Sincere feeling, a flawless beauty of language and melody mark the verse of Isakovsky. There is hardly any other Soviet poet who has had so much of his verse put to song as Isakovsky.

Widely popular, too, are the poems of Selvinsky, Shchepachev, Martynov, Surkov, Nedogonov, Pasternak, Smelyakov, Zabolotsky, Lugovskoy, Prokofiev, Jalil, Aligher, Bergoltz, Gamzatov, Gafurov, Dolmatovsky, Rozhdestvensky, Yevtushenko, Voznesensky, Slutsky (Russian Federation); Bazhan, Pervomaisky, Malyshko, Voronko (Ukraine); Brovka, Tank, Kuleshov (Byelorussia); I. Abashidze, Chikovani, Yashvili (Georgia); Charentz, Kaputikyan (Armenia); Vurgun (Azerbaijan); Aibek, Uigun, Zulfia (Uzbekistan); Djambul (Kazakhstan); Tursun-zade (Tajikistan); Neris, Mejelaitis, Martsinkyavichus (Latvia); Bykov, Lupan (Moldavia); Tokambayev (Kirghizia) and others.

WHAT WORLD AUTHORS ARE PUBLISHED IN THE USSR?

It can be said without exaggeration that all the best that has been produced by mankind has been published in the USSR. More than 2,000 books by foreign authors, the number of copies exceeding 70 million, are being put out annually.

Within the post-war years alone large editions of 100,000 and 200,000 copies have been published of the collected works

of Shakespeare, Cervantes, Lope de Vega, Goethe, Schiller, Stendhal, Balzac, Dickens, Walter Scott, Mérimée, Hugo, Zola, Fenimore Cooper, Mayne Reid, Heine, Alexandre Dumas, Flaubert, Maupassant, Jules Verne, Ibsen, Mark Twain, Jack London, Romain Rolland, Anatole France, Orzeszko, Jirasek, Tagore, Vazov, Dreiser, Proust, Zeromski, Thomas Mann, H. Mann, Stefan Zweig, Feuchtwanger, Galsworthy, Martin Andersen Nexö, Capek, Mao Tung, Brecht and Aragon, plus the selected works (in one, two or three volumes) of Boccaccio, Saadi, Shelly, Poe, Petöfi, O'Henry, Caragiale, Pritchard, Hemingway and many others. Such series in several volumes as «Monuments of Literature», «The Prose of the Foreign Countries of the East», «The Twentieth Century Novel Abroad» and others, anthologies, collections of short stories and poems by the writers of other lands are also widely printed. The Soviet people can also read books by Remarque, Seghers, Steinbeck, Caldwell, Maurois, Saroyan, Böll, Moravia, Neruda, Guillen, Aragon, Stone, Salinger, Abbas, Hardy, Larni, Drda, Ashkenazi, Putrament and other world writers.

Publishing houses put out large numbers of books by foreign authors on such subjects as physics, chemistry, mathematics, astronomy, philosophy, economics, history and international relations.

The translations of fiction by Lozinsky, Lyubimov, Marshak, Pasternak, Chukovsky, Kashkin and Levik are widely recognised.

WHAT PAINTINGS HAVE WON RECOGNITION?

First and foremost, the pictures of painters who did a considerable part of their work in the pre-revolutionary period, and after the Revolution dedicated their talent to the people and contributed greatly to the shaping of the new socialist art.

Kasatkin (1859-1930) depicted in his works the great power of the Russian working class and the growth of revolutionary consciousness among the workers (*Coal Miners, The Miner's Wife, A Hit*). He was the first painter to be honoured with the title of People's Artist. Arkhipov (1862-1930), descendant of a serf, depicted the Russian peasants. He is known for the broad, lush manner in which he painted with great mastery. To Nesterov (1862-1942) belong distin-

guished portraits of men of science and art (*Academician Pavlov, Sculptor Shadr, Surgeon Yudin*). Baksheyev (1862-1956), Rylov (1870-1939), Yuon (1875-1958) and Zhmuidzinavichus (1876-1967) were outstanding landscape painters. Grabar (1871-1960) is known as a landscape and portrait painter, art historian, an authority on art museums. Konchalovsky (1876-1956) and Mashkov (1881-1944) are famous for their still-lives.

Petrov-Vodkin (1878-1936) created images of Russian women and embodied in very moving form themes of the Revolution and Civil War. With brilliant command of his brush, subtle humour and a style cleverly imitating the early Russian print, Kustodiev (1878-1927) reproduces scenes of life in old Russia (*Shrovetide, Merchant's Wife Drinks Tea, Girl on the Volga, The Blue House, Russian Venus*). Saryan is famous for his vivid portraits and landscapes of the rugged scenery of his native Armenia. Gabashvili (1862-1936) is the father of realistic painting in Georgia.

A large group of outstanding Soviet painters appeared in the first two and a half decades following the Revolution. In their best works, recognised as classics of Soviet art, they embodied the heroic spirit of the Revolution, the coming into being of a new life and the new man.

Among these painters were Grekov (1882-1934), the father of Soviet battle-scene painting. In his vigorous, deeply stirring pictures, he paid tribute to the fighters of the First Cavalry Army with whom he served during the Civil War; Brodsky (1884-1939), who painted the first monumental historico-revolutionary pictures; S. Gerasimov (1885-1964), a genre painter and a master of lyric landscape; Korin, a portrait and historical painter distinguished for the originality and austerity of his style; Ioganson, known for his historico-revolutionary canvases (*Interrogation of Communists, At an Old Urals Mill, Lenin Addressing the Third Congress of the Komsomol*), brilliantly painted in the best realistic tradition; Deineka, painter, graphic artist, sculptor and monumentalist whose works are marked by a keen sense of the times, dynamic composition, intensity of inner rhythm, and have laconic and at times conventional form (*The Defence of Petrograd, Future Pilots, A Street in Rome, The Defence of Sevastopol*), murals and mozaics in public buildings; Meshkov (1893-1963), painter of monumental landscapes showing mainly the stark beauty of the

North; Plastov, genre painter depicting scenes from the life of collective farmers, and excelling as a colourist (*Hay-Making, Reaping Time, Tractor Drivers at Supper*); Shovkunenko, noted Ukrainian painter, one of the fathers of Soviet industrial landscape painting, and a portrait painter as well; Bokshai, from Trans-Carpathia, outstanding landscape painter of his native scenery; Kalnyn, Latvian seascape painter, a distinguished master in his field; Djaparidze, who dedicated his numerous canvases to the new life and people of Soviet Georgia; Chuikov, a painter of fascinating conversation pieces and landscapes of Soviet Kirghizia; U. Tansykbayev, an Uzbek painter, today a leading Soviet landscape artist.

Among the eminent painters who gained distinction after the last war were Serov (historical and historico-revolutionary canvases—*Lenin Proclaims Soviet Power, Capture of the Winter Palace*), Laktionov (*A Letter from the Front*), Neprintsev (*Resting after Battle*), Korzhev (*Communists*, a triptych), Stozharov (landscapes), Yablonskaya (*Grain*), Pimenov (*New Housing Estates*), Salakhov (*Repair Men, Portrait of the Composer Kara Karayev*), as well as Avilov, Bogorodsky, Yefanov, Kuprin, P. Kuznetsov, Moiseyenko, Nissky, Radimov, Romadin, Ryazhsky, Savitsky, Svarog, Shegal, B. Yakovlev, V. Yakovlev (Russian Federation), Bozhi, Bokshai, Grigoryev, Glushchenko, Kashai, Kostetsky, Melikhov, Puzyrkov, Khmelko, Chekanyuk (Ukraine), Tsvirko (Byelorussia), Gudiashvili (Georgia), Iltner, Kalnyn, Osis, Skulme (Latvia), Klychev (Turkmenia), Kasteev (Kazakhstan), Abegyan, Zardarian (Armenia), Abdullayev (Azerbaijan), Kits (Estonia), Khoshmukhamedov (Tajikistan), Kitaika (Moldavia), Aitiev (Kirghizia) and others.

WHAT ARE THE ACHIEVEMENTS OF SOVIET SCULPTORS?

Sculptors of all nationalities inhabiting the USSR have produced works of merit. Foremost among them is the famous «Leniniana» by Andreyev (1873-1932)—it is a series of sculptures and drawings of Lenin made from life. The son of a Smolensk peasant, Konenkov, today is one of the most eminent living sculptors. Showing tremendous talent

and wide range, his works are marked by a deep plastic sense, insight and graceful form (portraits of Gorky, Chaliapin, Moussorgsky, Dostoyevsky, *Self Portrait*, a series of nudes, fairy and mythological characters from Slav folklore). Several expressive and realistic portraits were made by Golubkina (1864-1927). Shortly after the Revolution Shadr (1887-1941) began to portray in sculpture types of the new people (*The Worker, The Peasant, Sower, The Red Army Man*). Engravings of these sculptures served as designs for the first Soviet stamps and currency. Mukhina won renown for her world-famous *Worker and Collective Farm Woman*, a sculpture of stainless steel. Manizer (1891-1966) is known for his many statues (Lenin, Shevchenko, Chapayev) and his monuments (1905 Revolution Memorial).

Worthy of mention among the younger sculptors are Vuchetich (*The Soldier Liberator*, monument at the war cemetery in Berlin, monuments to General Vatutin and Chernyakhovsky, sculptural portraits), Kibalnikov (Mayakovsky statue in Moscow), Abdurakhmanov (Nizami monument in Baku), Anikushin (Pushkin statue in Leningrad), Kerbel (monument to Marx in Moscow, sculptures of the Soviet cosmonauts), Tsigal (Mauthausen Memorial), Fiveisky (*Stronger than Death*), Jokubonis (Memorial to fascist victims in Lithuania), Neizvestny and others.

Impressive are the works of such sculptors as Belasheva, Vatagin, Domogatsky, Lebedeva, Lishev, Matveyev, Merkurlov, Tomsky, Shervud (Russian Federation), Lysenko (Ukraine), Azgur (Byelorussia), Nikoladze, Kakabadze (Georgia), Sarksyán (Armenia), Zalkalns (Latvia), Mikenas (Lithuania) and others.

WHO ARE THE BEST KNOWN SOVIET GRAPHIC ARTISTS?

Graphic arts are very popular in the USSR. A major role in promoting Soviet graphic art was played by Pavlov (1872-1951), famous for his wood engravings and linocuts of Russian landscapes and scenes of old Russian towns. In her exquisite woodcuts and water colours Ostroumova-Lebedeva (1871-1955) depicts the austere and stately architecture of Leningrad. Favorsky (1886-1965) is a brilliant master of the art of xylography and book illustration. His excellent

illustrations of the world classics are distinguished for their depth and precision of form. He is also known as an outstanding teacher, to whom many young talented Soviet engravers are indebted for their training.

A considerable contribution to Soviet graphic art has been made by such artists as Moor (1883-1946), cartoonist and poster artist, one of the originators of Soviet poster style; Kravchenko (1889-1940), an engraver and illustrator (Gogol, Hoffman, Dickens), who paints posters in an elevated romantic style; Kasiyan, eminent Ukrainian artist (engravings, lithographs, drawings and water colours); Vasiliev, known for his impressive series of drawings of Lenin; the famous Kukryniksy team, composed of artists Kupriyanov, Krylov and N. Sokolov, who produce the finest Soviet political and satirical posters; Shmarinov (illustrations for L. Tolstoi's *War and Peace*, and a series of posters on the atrocities of the nazis—*We Shall Not Forget and Not Forgive*); Zhukov (illustrations for Polevoi's *The Story of a Real Man*, drawings devoted to children); Prorokov (*For Peace*, a series of poster paintings); Vereisky (illustrated Sholokhov's *And Quiet Flows the Don*), Deni, Yefimov, I. Sokolov, Kibrik, Dubinsky, Krasauskas, Konstantinov, Kodjoyan, Kobuladze, Ilyina, Goncharov, Goryayev, Derigus, Pashchenko, Reindorf, Okas, Bogatkin, Zakharov, Golitsyn, Yurkunas, Bogdesko, Mechev, Ushin, I. Semyonov, Rachev and many others.

WHAT IS THE ATTITUDE TO ABSTRACT ART IN THE USSR?

We do not like it for the simple reason that abstract art takes us away from reality, from labour and beauty, from joy and sorrow, from the very throb of life, into an illusory and spectral world, into the futility of so-called self-expression.

Abstract art leads to disintegration of the artistic image, in fact, to elimination of pictorial art. Since abstract paintings and sculptures are incomprehensible to the overwhelming majority of people what can they convey to the human brain and heart?

HOW DOES THE ARTIST SELL HIS PICTURE?

As a rule, artists are commissioned to paint pictures, or works which are bought from them by special purchasing committees for state art museums, galleries and touring exhibitions, or public buildings—educational institutions, theatres, hotels and sports premises. Anyone can buy a picture at special exhibitions or through an art shop. Graphic artists sell a large number of prints at special shops. Sold at reasonable prices (from two to six roubles), prints are popular with Soviet buyers. Many pictures are acquired by public organisations, primarily by trade unions (for palaces and houses of culture, club-houses, sanatoriums and holiday homes).

WHAT NATIONAL ARTS AND CRAFTS ARE THERE IN THE USSR?

The following are the best known; in the Russian Federation wood, stone and bone-carving, miniatures on black lacquer, ceramics, lace-work, metal-work and rug-weaving; in the Ukraine, ceramics and wood incrustation; in Byelorussia, ceramics and embroidery; in Uzbekistan, silk-embroidery, ceramics and stone-cutting; in Armenia, Azerbaijan, Moldavia and Turkmenia, rugs; in Georgia, silver-chasing; in the Baltic Republics, ceramics, artistic woodwork, leather-work and weaving.

Many articles produced by folk craftsmen enjoy world fame, among them the Palekh and Fedoskino boxes, Khokhloma painted ware, Vologda, Dymkovo toys, lace, chased silver of the North Caucasus, Ukrainian pitchers and Turkmen rugs.

Most craftsmen belong to cooperatives. The articles they produce are sold at art shops and special souvenir or gift shops. There is a great demand for them, as they harmonise very well with the interior of the modern home.

HOW MANY THEATRES ARE THERE IN THE USSR?

There are nearly 500 professional theatres.

The largest number are drama, comedy and operetta

theatres (342). There are 36 opera and ballet companies and 123 children's and youth theatres. Theatres play in 45 languages. The annual number of theatre-goers amounts to 100 million.

Under the Soviet system, professional theatrical art has come into being among many peoples (Kazakhs, Kirghiz, Tajiks, Turkmenians, Chuvash, Yakuts and others) who knew nothing of opera, ballet or drama before the Revolution. New types of theatres, such as children's and young spectators', have appeared.

WHAT IS THE REPERTORY OF THE SOVIET THEATRE?

The best plays of all times and ages, beginning with Aeschylus, Sophocles and Euripides, have been brought within reach of the masses in the USSR. The classics of Russian and world drama, as well as plays by contemporary dramatists, are presented regularly to Soviet audiences.

Soviet literature has no lack of important names in the field of drama. Among leading Soviet dramatists are Trennev, Romashov, Afinogenov, Lavrenev, Kocherga, Vishnevsky, Pogodin, Korneichuk, Arbuzov, Rozov, Sofronov, Stein, Shvarts, Zorin, Shatrov, Yakobson, Aleshin, Makayonok and others. The great appeal of their plays lies in fidelity to life's truth and in their crisp, unaffected dialogue. Some dramatists are criticised, however, for inadequate boldness in tackling contemporary themes.

In addition to the work of dramatists, stage versions of famous novels are extremely popular with Soviet audiences. Among novels successfully adapted for the stage are Leo Tolstoi's *Anna Karenina* and *Resurrection*, Dostoyevsky's *The Brothers Karamazov*, Gorky's *The Artamonovs* and *Foma Gordeyev*, Thackeray's *Vanity Fair*, Flaubert's *Madame Bovary*, Voynich's *Gadfly*, Tagore's *Daughter of the Ganges*, Remarque's *Three Comrades* and Mark Twain's *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer*.

WHAT ARE THE MOST FAMOUS SOVIET THEATRES?

The Bolshoi Theatre (State Academic Bolshoi Theatre of the USSR, Moscow), with its first-class opera troupe and its renowned ballet company, is a major centre of world musical culture. It has been in existence since 1776. Other popular opera and ballet theatres are the Leningrad Kirov Theatre, founded in the middle of the 18th century and the first to present the operas of Glinka, Dargomyzhsky, Tchaikovsky and Rimsky-Korsakov; the Moscow Stanislavsky and Nemirovich-Danchenko Theatre, known for its productions of operas and ballets by Soviet composers; the Shevchenko Theatre in Kiev (Ukrainian and Russian classical operas, works of contemporary Ukrainian composers); Paliashvili Theatre in Tbilisi, Navoi Theatre in Tashkent, the Kazakh Abai Theatre in Alma-Ata, theatres in Minsk, Riga, Tallinn and in the capitals of the other fraternal Republics, as well as in Novosibirsk, Odessa, Kazan, Gorky, Sverdlovsk, Saratov and other big cities.

The Maly Theatre (State Academic Maly Theatre, Moscow) and the Art Theatre (Moscow Gorky Art Academic Theatre) are the two leading drama theatres of the Soviet Union. It is chiefly for its productions of the classics of Russian drama that the Maly Theatre is famous (its initial troupe was formed in the 1750's). The Moscow Art Theatre was founded in 1898 by Stanislavsky (1863-1938), great actor, producer and reformer of stage art, together with Nemirovich-Danchenko, producer and dramatist. Theatre art was invigorated by bringing to the stage entirely new methods of acting and directing (Stanislavsky system).

The Vakhtangov Theatre (Moscow) founded by Vakhtangov (1883-1922), outstanding actor and producer, a pupil of Stanislavsky, can well rival the Maly and Art Theatres in standards of acting and directing. The appeal of its productions lies in their pungency of form and their exploration of new possibilities in the theatrical medium.

The Pushkin Theatre (Leningrad) dates from 1756, when Russia's first professional drama company was founded in St. Petersburg. This theatre has earned an excellent reputation for a number of notable productions of classical and modern plays.

The Franko Theatre (Kiev), the Ukraine's leading drama

theatre, was founded in 1920. It is noted for its productions of plays by contemporary Ukrainian writers.

Other leading drama theatres are the Mayakovsky, Pushkin, Mossovet, Yermolova, Soviet Army and Satire theatres (Moscow), the Gorky and Comedy theatres (Leningrad), Lesya Ukrainka, Shevchenko, Zankovetska theatres (Ukraine), Kupala Theatre (Byelorussia), Rustaveli and Griboyedov theatres (Georgia), Sundukyan Theatre (Armenia), Khamza Theatre (Uzbekistan), Auezov Theatre (Kazakhstan), Azizbekov Theatre (Azerbaijan), Rajnis Theatre (Latvia), theatres in the capitals of the Autonomous Republics and in many regional centres. Extremely popular are the Moscow Puppet Theatre, headed by Obratsov, Sovremennik, the Drama and Comedy Theatre, and the Leningrad Variety Show by Arkady Raikin.

WHO ARE MOST POPULAR STAGE PERSONALITIES?

Glorious names in opera and ballet are Chaliapin (1873-1938), Nezhdanova (1873-1950), Sobinov (1872-1934), A. Pirogov (1889-1964), Obukhova (1886-1961), Barsova, Reizen, Mikhailov, Kozlovsky, Lemeshev, Lisitsian, Arkhipova, Vishnevskaya, Milashkina (opera); Geltser, Ulanova, Semenova, Plisetskaya, A. Messerer, Lepeshinskaya, Gabovich, Sergeyev, Kondratov, Koren, Struchkova, Bovt, Dudinskaya, Shelest. Lapauri, Ryabinkina, Maximova, Vasilyev, Soloviev, Fadeychev and Liepa (ballet); among choreographers Lavrovsky, Vainonen and Zakharov; among orchestra conductors Golovanov (1891-1953), Samosud (1884-1964), Melik-Pashayev, (1905-1964), Nebolsin (1898-1959), Fayer, Khaikin, Kondrashin, Svetlanov.

There are outstanding performers in Soviet opera and ballet art in all the fraternal Republics as well. This applies not only to the Ukraine, which is rightly compared to Italy in wealth of vocal talent and which boasts of such renowned opera stars as Patorzhinsky, Litvinenko-Volgemut, Petrusenko, Gaidai, Gmyrya, Chavdar, Grishko, Gnatyuk, Belinnik, Miroschnichenko, Rudenko, Gulyaev. High standards in their art have been achieved by such opera singers as Alexandrovskaya (Byelorussia), Amiranashvili (Georgia), Dolukhanova, Gasparyan (Armenia), Nasyrova (Uzbekistan), Byul-Byul (Azerbaijan), Kulieva

(Turkmenia), Baiseitova, Moldybayev, Sekabayev (Kazakhstan), Kuuzik (Estonia) and by the dancers Chabukiani (Georgia), Ismailova (Uzbekistan) and others.

The pride of the Maly and Art Theatres are Yermolova (1853-1928), the great Russian tragedienne, first actress to be honoured with the title of People's Artiste; Yuzh (1857-1927), Ostuzhev (1874-1953), Yablochkina (1861-1964), Turchaninova (1870-1963), Ryzhova (1871-1963), Pashennaya (1887-1963), Zubov (1888-1956), Gogoleva (1894-1963), Annenkov (Maly Theatre); Knipper-Chekhova (1870-1959), Kachalov (1875-1948), Moskvina (1874-1946), Tarkhanov, Leonidov (1873-1944), Khmelev (1901-1945), Tarasova, Elanskaya, Dobronravov (1896-1949), Stepanova, Zueva, Androvskaya, Kedrov, Gribov, Livanov, Petker, Yershov, Massalsky, Prudkin, Toporkov and Yanshin (Moscow Art Theatre). Shchukin (1894-1939), of the Vakhtangov Theatre, was the first actor to bring Lenin's image to the stage. His portrayal of Lenin won him universal plaudits. R. Simonov, Astangov (1900-1965), Abrikosov, Alexeyeva, Borisova, Lanovoi, Gritsenko, Ulyanov, Yakovlev, L. Pashkova are other distinguished actors of the Vakhtangov Theatre, to mention but a few.

Among other talented actors of Moscow theatres very popular are: Ranevskaya, Maretskaya, Plyatt, Peltser, Savina, Kasatkina, Yakut, Sverdlin, Papanov, Yefremov, Zeldin, Yevstigneyev, Kazakov, and others.

Notable personalities of the Pushkin Theatre in Leningrad are Yuriev (1872-1948), Pevtsov (1879-1934), Korchagina-Alexandrovskaya (1879-1951), Cherkasov (1903-1966), Borisov, N. Simonov and Skorobogatov.

Among other eminent stars of drama are Gnat Yura, Krushelnitsky, Shumsky, Uzhvi and Romanov (Ukraine), Platonov and Glebov (Byelorussia), Kuanyshpaev (Kazakhstan), Khorava, Vasadze and Andjaparidze (Georgia), Vagarshyan, Papazyan (Armenia), Amirov, Kurbanova (Azerbaijan), Ishanturayeva, Khidoyatov, Kulmamedov (Uzbekistan), Smilgis, Berzin (Latvia), Ryskulov (Kirghizia).

ARE OPERA AND BALLET POPULAR IN THE USSR?

In the Soviet Union one must book tickets well in advance for the opera or ballet. The Bolshoi Theatre in Mos-

cow and the Kirov Theatre in Leningrad have the reputation of being theatres for which it is hardest to get tickets. Seats are always sold out for their performances.

The most popular opera and ballet composers are Tchaikovsky (*Eugene Onegin*, *The Queen of Spades*, *Swan Lake*, *Sleeping Beauty*), Glinka (*Ruslan and Lyudmila*, *Ivan Susanin*), Dargomyzhsky (*Mermaid*), Moussorgski (*Boris Godunov*), Borodin (*Prince Igor*), Mozart (*The Marriage of Figaro*), Rossini (*The Barber of Seville*), Bizet (*Carmen*), Verdi (*Rigoletto*, *La Traviata*, *Aida*), Gounod (*Faust*), Adan (*Giselle*) and Minkus (*Don Quixote*). Operas by Weber, Wagner, Massenet, Puccini, Smetana, Moniuszko and other composers are also presented.

Increasingly greater prominence is being given in the repertory of Soviet theatres to operas and ballets by contemporary Soviet composers, such as *War and Peace* and *Romeo and Juliet* (Prokofiev), *And Quiet Flows the Don* (Dzerzhinsky), *Bogdan Khmel'nitsky* (Dankevich), *Red Flower*, *Bronze Horseman* (Gliyer), *The Fountain of Bakhchisarai* (Asafiev), *Spartacus* (Khachaturyan), *Othello* (Machavariani), *Path of Thunder* (Kara Karayev) and *On the Sea Coast* (Juzeljunas).

IS SYMPHONY MUSIC APPRECIATED?

Very much so. There are symphony orchestras or ensembles in all the large cities. The best known orchestras are the state symphony orchestras of the USSR and a number of the fraternal Republics, the Bolshoi Theatre orchestra, orchestras of the All-Union Radio and Television, the Leningrad Philharmonic and Moscow Philharmonic Societies and the orchestra of the Cinematography Committee. There are also a number of amateur symphony orchestras, among them the orchestra at the Moscow Scientists' Club, which has been in existence for over 30 years.

Every day symphony concerts and music request programmes are broadcast to radio listeners. The best concerts are transmitted over the radio and television from concert halls in Moscow, Leningrad, Kiev, Riga and other cities. Lecture concerts on the life and work of individual composers are extremely popular. They are held at halls, palaces of culture and clubs and are broadcast over the radio

and on television. Symphony concerts are often arranged in factory shops and on collective farms. In summer symphony orchestras play in the parks and gardens.

Orchestras and ensembles are often invited from other lands to play in the USSR. Guest performances have been given by the Vienna, Boston, Berlin and London symphony orchestras, the «Virtuosi of Rome» and many other groups.

WHO ARE THE BEST LIKED COMPOSERS?

First and foremost the symphonic and chamber works of the Russian composers—Tchaikovsky, Glinka, Moussorgsky, Borodin, Rimsky-Korsakov, Rachmaninov, Scriabin—and the world classical composers—Bach, Haydn, Mozart, Beethoven, Paganini, Rossini, Mendelssohn, Schubert, Schumann, Chopin, Wagner, Bizet, Liszt, Saint-Saens, Massenet, Berlioz, Brahms, Grieg, Puccini, Debussy, Ravel, Sibelius, Mahler, Wieniawski, Smetana, Dvorak, de Falla and others. Among modern Soviet composers the best loved are Prokofiev, Shostakovich, Khachaturyan, Gliyer, Myaskovsky, Shaporin, Kabalevsky, Sviridov, Kara Karayev, Taktakishvili, Dvarionas and Ernesaks, and among world composers Stravinsky, Enescu, Isaih, Bartok, Gershwin, Bush, Britten and Vladigerov.

There are also many lovers of light and variety music. Favourites are Johann Strauss, Kalman, Offenbach, Lehar and the Soviet composers I. Dunayevsky, Solovyov-Sedoi, Blanter, Milyutin, Eshpai, Tsintsadze, Babadjanyan, Agababov and Dolukhanyan.

WHAT CONCERT ARTISTS ARE MOST POPULAR?

Many Soviet musicians enjoy world renown. It is enough to mention such violinists as David Oistrakh and Kogan, the pianists Richter, Gilels and Oborin, and the cellist Rostropovich. In recent years many young Soviet musicians have attained distinction and carried off prizes at international and Soviet competitions. Among them are the violinists Igor Oistrakh, Klimov, Gutnikov, Bezrodny, Yashvili, Bochkova, Shkolnikova and Tretyakov; the pianists Bashkirov, Kerer, Ashkenazi, Paperny, Vlasenko, Sokolov; the cellists Shakhovskaya, Georgiyan, and others.

Consummate artistry and polish are typical of such Soviet chamber ensembles as the violinists' orchestra of the Bolshoi Theatre, the Beethoven, Glazunov, Borodin and Komitas quartets and the Moscow chamber orchestra under the baton of R. Barshai. Virtuoso players of folk instruments—the accordion, balalaika, domra and bandura—are extremely popular.

Of the guest performers who played in the Soviet Union Van Cliburn, the American pianist, has particularly endeared himself to Soviet music-lovers, and his triumph at the Tchaikovsky Competition in Moscow was a memorable event. A most enthusiastic reception was accorded in the USSR to Yegudi Menuhin, Starr (USA), Roukha (Rumania), Liu Shi-kun (Chinese People's Republic), Cerny-Stefanska (Poland), Fischer (Hungary) and John Ogden (England) and others.

WHAT SONGS ARE MOST POPULAR?

Folk songs and modern songs can be heard everywhere. They are performed both by professional and amateur choirs. The most widely known professional choirs are the Russian State Academic Choir, the Leningrad Academic Choral Capella, the Academic Male Choir of Estonia, the Pyatnitsky Choir, the Voronezh, North, Urals and Omsk choirs, the Ukrainian Capella «Dumka», the Trans-Carpathian Folk Choir, the «Doina» Moldavian Choir, the Song and Dance Company of the Soviet Army and numerous others. Thousands of amateur choirs flourish. Annual song festivals are held in the Baltic Republics and in many regions of the Russian Federation and the Ukraine. They attract thousands of participants.

Countless songs have been written by Soviet poets and composers (many for films). Some of the outstanding Soviet lyrical poets are Lebedev-Kumach, Isakovsky, Oshanin (he wrote the words of the «Song of Democratic Youth»), Fatyanov, Dolmatovsky and Matusovsky. Music scores have been written by A. Alexandrov, I. Dunayevsky, Zakharov, the brothers Pokrass, Khrennikov, Solovyov-Sedoi, Blanter, Listov, Mokrousov, Muradeli, Kolmanovsky, Pakhmutova, G. Maiboroda, Fradkin, Eshpai, Babadjanyan, Oiyakyar, Feltsman, Ostrovsky, Novikov, and Petrov.

Many popular songs have been written by amateur poets and composers from the midst of factory and office workers, scientists, collective farmers, soldiers and housewives. Countless ditties of four verses, mostly in a lyric or satirical vein, are improvised and sung to the accompaniment of the accordion or balalaika in the Russian countryside.

WHICH ARE MOST POPULAR DANCE AND SONG ENSEMBLES?

The USSR Folk Dance Ensemble directed by Igor Moiseyev is an invariable success with Soviet and foreign audiences. Other popular ensembles are the women's dance ensemble *Beryozka*, the Soviet Army Song and Dance Ensemble, the Pyatnitsky Russian Choir, the Sveshnikov Choir, the Omsk Choir, the Georgian Folk Dance Ensemble and the Ukrainian Folk Dance Ensemble.

IS IT TRUE THAT JAZZ IS FORBIDDEN IN THE USSR?

It is not true. There are many jazz bands in the Soviet Union, among them such favourites as the Utesov, Lundstrom and Rozner jazz bands, the *Rero* Georgian ensemble, the Armenian jazz band and the *Druzhba* ensemble. Jazz orchestras give public concerts, play in dance halls, at cinemas, cafes and restaurants, as well as on the radio and television.

Amateur jazz bands are organised at clubs, palaces of culture and educational institutions, in army units. Annual contests are held among the best non-professional jazz bands. Many distinguished composers write jazz music.

Good jazz music is very popular in the USSR. What is indeed deprecated is slavish imitation of poor samples of Western jazz, devoid of melody and in which senseless caterwauling and a jarring chaos of sound take the place of music.

WHAT ARE THE ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE SOVIET CINEMA?

Out of the 12 films declared to be the best of all times and all countries by a special committee of the International Bureau on the History of Cinema which met in Brussels on September 18, 1958, three were Soviet productions. They were *Battleship Potemkin* (producer Eisenstein), *Mother* (Pudovkin) and *The Land* (Dovzhenko). The largest number of votes was polled by *Battleship Potemkin*, so that it topped the list of these 12 best films of the world.

Inspired by the theme of Revolution and making the people heroes of their films, Eisenstein, Pudovkin and Dovzhenko struck a new and vigorous note in world film art.

Following in the footsteps of these great innovators, and concerning themselves with the vital problems of the building of a new society and new human relationships, Soviet film directors of the old generation produced many memorable films: *We Are from Kronstadt* (Dzigan), *Chapayev* (Vasiliev Brothers), *Lenin in October*, *Lenin in 1918* (Romm), *The Road to Life* (Ekk), *Eliso* (Shengelaya), *The Trilogy of Maxim* (Kozintsev and Trauberg), *The Great Citizen* (Ermler), *Circus*, *Volga-Volga* (Alexandrov), *Tractor Drivers*, *The Rich Bride* (Pyriev), *Counter-Plan* (Yutkevich).

Among the Soviet post-war films, *The Cranes Are Flying* (directed by Kalatozov, starring Samoilova and A. Batalov) has been a world smash-hit. It won the Grand Prix at the 11th Cannes Festival and numerous other prizes in various lands. *Ballad of a Soldier* (directed by Chukhrai, starring Prokhorenko and Ivashov) won two awards at the 13th Cannes Festival. Other films which have won international festival awards are *Lady with a Pet Dog* (producer Heifitz, starring Iya Savvina, A. Batalov), *The House I Live in* (Kulidjanov and Segel), *Seryozha* (Danelya and Talankin), *Ivan's Childhood* (Tarkovsky), *The Dingo* (Karasik), *Starting Out* (Talankin) and others. Outstanding films of recent years are *The Forty-First* (Chukhrai), *Guilty Though Guiltless* (Petrov), *The Communist* (Raizman), *And Quiet Flows the Don* (Gerasimov), *The Fate of a Man*, *War and Peace* (Bondarchuk), *The Idiot* (Pyriev), *Great Heights* (Zarkhi), *Carnival Night* (Ryazanov) and *Nine Days of One Year*

(Romm), *Hamlet* (Kozintsev), *Optimistic Tragedy* (Samsonov), *Silence* (Basov), *The Living and Dead* (Stolper), *Chairman* (Saltykov), *I Walk around Moscow* (Danelya).

Many important documentary and popular science films (directed by Karmen, Zguridi, Shneiderov and others) have also been produced.

In 1966 the 41 film studios of the Soviet Union released 158 full-length pictures (128 feature films) and 984 short films.

Soviet films are shown in over 60 countries of the world.

WHO ARE THE USSR'S MOST POPULAR FILM STARS?

Lyubov Orlova was the Soviet Union's most popular film star before the war. A charming actress with great *joie de vivre*, she played the lead in such films as *Jolly Fellows*, *The Circus* and *Volga-Volga*. Widely acclaimed, too, were T. Makarova (*Komsomolsk*), Ladynina (*The Rich Bride, Tractor Drivers*), Kryuchkov (*The Rich Bride, Tractor Drivers, The Lad from Our Town*), Alisova (*Dowerless*), Tenin (*Counter-Plan, Man with a Gun*). Stars who have risen to fame in the post-war years are Izvitskaya (*The Forty-First*), Bystritskaya (*And Quiet Flows the Don*), Skobtseva (*Othello, Seryozha*), I. Makarova (*Young Guard, Great Heights*), Kirienko (*The Fate of a Man, And Quiet Flows the Don*), Abashidze (*The Dragon Fly*), Rumyantseva (*The Unruly Ones, The Lasses*), Kivi (*Mischievous Turnings*), Rybnikov (*Great Heights*), Bondarchuk (*Othello, The Fate of a Man*), Urbansky (*The Communist*), Tikhonov (*Force Major Circumstances, Optimistic Tragedy*), Smoktunovsky (*Nine Days of One Year, Hamlet*), Filipov (*Carnival Night*), and others.

From the beginning of Soviet film art, actors of the stage have appeared with success on the screen. Many of the films in which they played are classics of Soviet film art today. Particularly memorable are the screen portrayals of N. Batalov (*The Road to Life*), Babochkin (*Chapayev*), Cherkasov (*Alexander Nevsky, Baltic Deputy, Don Quixote*), Okhlopkov, Vanin (*Lenin in 1918*), Tarasova, Vikland (*Guilty Though Guiltless*), Chirkov (*The Trilogy of Maxim*), Buchma (*Wind from the East*), Khorava (*Georgi*

Saakadze), Zharov (*Three Comrades*, District Committee Secretary), Maretskaya (*Member of the Government*, Village Teacher), Mordvinov (*Masquerade*), Glebov (*And Quiet Flows the Don*), Borisova (*The Idiot*), Ilyinsky (*Carnival Night*), Ulyanov (*Battle on the Road*, Chairman.)

Some of the most promising young film stars today are Semina, Tabakov, Golubkina, Demyanenko, Vertinskaya, Polskikh, Savelieva, Velichko, Fyodorova.

WHAT FOREIGN FILMS HAVE MOST APPEALED TO SOVIET AUDIENCES?

This question can hardly be answered fully, as Soviet audiences watch dozens of foreign films every year. It is possible only to mention some of the recent foreign films enthusiastically received by Soviet audiences.

Such Italian film producers as Fellini, De Santis and Vittorio De Sica, and film stars Giulietta Masina, Silvana Pampanini, Pietro Germi, Massimo Girotti, Alberto Sordi, Marcello Mastroianni, Sofia Loren are extremely popular in the USSR. A great success was scored in the Soviet Union by *Rome at 11 a. m.*, *The Locomotive Driver*, *A Husband for Anna Zaccheo*, *Nights of Cabiria*, *General della Rovere*, *Everybody Go Home*, *A Journalist from Rome*, *Boom*, *Divorce Italian Style* and others. Soviet audiences were delighted with French films starring Jean Gabin (*Les Misérables*), Simone Signoret (*Therese Raquin*), Gerard Philipe (*Red and Black*, *Fanfan la Tulipe*), Danielle Darrieux (*Marie Octobre*), Jean Marais. The French film, *La Quai du Point du Tour*, was well received by Soviet audiences. Best remembered are films such as *Kingdom of Crooked Mirrors*, *We Prodigies*, *While You Are with Me* (West Germany), *Room at the Top*, *Inspector Calls*, *Laughter in Paradise*, *This Sporting Life* (Britain), *Marty*. *Witness for the Prosecution*, *The Diary of Anna Frank*, *The Magnificent Seven*, *Oklahoma*, *To Be or Not To Be*, *Inherit the Wind* (USA).

During the post-war years Soviet audiences have been widely introduced to the film art of countries of the East and Latin America. Soviet film-goers have shown great appreciation for the films of India, especially films starring Raj Kapur and Nargis; of Japan and the United Arab Re-

public. Mexican film art has been represented by such thrilling pictures as *Revenge*, *Love Meeting* and *Juana Galio*, Argentine film art by *My Poor Beloved Mother* and Brazilian by *Where the Paved Road Ends*.

Films produced by the socialist countries are being shown everywhere in the Soviet Union. The *Russian Miracle* (the Thorndikes) has scored a triumph.

Still well remembered in the USSR are famous films of earlier years, such as Charlie Chaplin's *City Lights* and *Modern Times*; *Peter and Little Mama*, starring Francesca Gaal; *The Great Waltz*, and films with Emil Jannings, Douglas Fairbanks and Mary Pickford, Marlene Dietrich, Adolphe Menjou, Harry Piel, Dianna Durbin and many other famous film stars of the twenties and thirties.

HOW MANY CINEMAS ARE THERE IN THE USSR?

In 1966 there were 149,000 cinema projectors in movie houses, palaces of culture and recreation clubs, an increase of 4,000 over 1965. And yet it is not sufficient.

Measures are being taken to step up the building of more cinemas and clubs, especially in small towns, workers' settlements and large villages. Remote villages and settlements without cinema facilities are serviced by special mobile cinemas; their number is 14,000. Annual cinema attendances run into approximately 40,000 million.

IS CIRCUS POPULAR?

Yes, circus is very popular.

Circus performances were a favourite entertainment at Russian fairs and playgrounds since old times. The first permanent circus was opened in Moscow in 1764.

Russian circus is known for its democratic traditions. Especially famous in the past were satirical clowns Alexander and Vladimir Durov and V. Lasarenko. However, by the time of the Revolution circus was on the decline in Russia, which was also the case in Europe.

The October Revolution opened up new possibilities for cultural and artistic activities, including circus.

In Soviet circus the traditional stunts—acrobatics, juggling, performing animals—go hand in hand with ori-

ginal numbers employing the latest technological achievements. Among the popular circus artists are the magicians Kio and animal trainers Eder, Bugrimova, Buslayev, Zapashny, Filatov, Alexandrov.

A popular form of Soviet circus art is a big colourful performance with a plot. Soviet clowns combine buffoonery with satirical scenes. Among the best known are Popov, Rumyantsev and Nikulin.

Circus is the art of the brave and agile, but risky tricks that may endanger the artist's life or health are not encouraged in Soviet circus.

Great attention is given to the development of national circus art. The circuses in Union Republics cultivate traditional performances of their peoples. Widely known are Uzbek acrobats on camels Kadyr-Gulyam, Tuvinian jugglers Oskal-Ool and Daghestan rope-walkers Tsovkra.

There are more than 50 stationary and 15 travelling circuses in the USSR with an annual attendance of some 20 million. The USSR has a circus school, a special studio for preparing new numbers and a circus museum.

The magazine *Soviet Variety Art and Circus* has a circulation of 50,000. Over 25 circus performers have the title of People's Artistes of the USSR, about one hundred are Merited Artistes of Union or Autonomous Republics. Every year Soviet circus companies perform abroad.

HOW WIDESPREAD ARE AMATEUR ART ACTIVITIES?

Amateur dramatic, choral, musical and ballet groups have sprung up everywhere. There are countless amateur singers, dancers, elocutionists and players of every kind of musical instrument, particularly folk instruments. Amateur groups (of which there are about 400,000 with a total membership of 10 million) function at all enterprises, collective and state farms, educational institutions, offices and army units. Membership is open to everyone. No attendance or tuition fees are charged. The leaders of these groups are either experienced amateurs or professionals.

There are amateur performances which are up to professional standards. Many famous Soviet singers, dancers, actors, musicians and variety and circus artists have start-

ed their careers as members of amateur groups. The largest and best groups are promoted to the status of people's theatres, people's operas or philharmonic societies.

They go on functioning, however, on an amateur basis and consist of factory workers, office employees, collective farmers, students or pensioners who devote their leisure to theatre art, receiving no remuneration for their performances. They are as a rule headed by professional art directors. Unlike the amateur groups, however, which perform to audiences from time to time, the people's theatres present plays on regular days, have a definite repertory and stage full big-cast plays, operas or ballets. A few people's theatres charge a token admission fee (from 30 to 60 kopecks). They collect money for scenery, costumes and so on. There were 900 people's theatres in the USSR in 1966.

WHAT ARE PEOPLE'S UNIVERSITIES OF CULTURE?

They are a form of public education sponsored by houses of culture, as well as by factory and other clubs. Prospective students themselves decide on the length of the study term and the nature of the course. There is no uniform programme for such universities. As a rule there are no examinations or tests. Such universities offer courses of lectures on science, culture, music, art, literature, theatre and cinema. Lectures are accompanied by films, concerts, talks by poets, writers or play and film producers and actors. Seminars and debates are held. Visits to museums and picture galleries, as well as to plays and concerts, are part of the course.

There are now two basic types of people's universities—one for vocational training and the other for raising the general cultural standards.

Lecturers are usually local specialists in a particular field who work on a voluntary basis. No fees are charged for attendance, except in rare cases (tickets for a whole course of lectures are sometimes sold for a token fee).

People's universities of culture have sprung up as a result of heightened public interest in science and technology, in literature, music, painting and other arts. They satisfy the need for knowledge in historical background and the latest developments in all spheres of culture.

Very popular is the radio university of culture organised by Radio Moscow. From 1965 the Moscow and Leningrad television studios have been regularly broadcasting educational programmes. The Moscow programme includes a course of lectures on topical problems of science, engineering and culture which are of interest to people of any occupation, a complete course on the basic subjects of higher and secondary specialised schools, consultations for applicants to universities and colleges and foreign language lessons. Recorded lectures and talks are usually rebroadcast by local television centres. Thus the Moscow Television Centre became a lecture hall for millions.

WHAT MUSEUMS DOES THE USSR HAVE?

There are nearly a thousand museums in the USSR—historico-revolutionary, history, art, theatre and music, natural science, regional and branch museums. Regional museums are the largest in number. They contain exhibits dealing with the history and modern development of the local district, town or region.

Many museums are world famous.

The collection of the Central Lenin Museum located near the Red Square in Moscow tells of the life of the great leader of the Russian Revolution, his political career, his work as statesman and scholar. Since the day of its inauguration (in 1936) this museum has been visited by 26 million persons. There are a number of other museums dedicated to Lenin—in Gorki near Moscow, where he spent the last days of his life and died in 1924; in Leningrad, where Lenin led the Great October Socialist Revolution of 1917; in Ulyanovsk on the Volga, where he was born and spent his childhood and boyhood years; in the village of Shushenskoye (Krasnoyarsk Territory, East Siberia), where he was exiled by the tsarist government for his revolutionary activities; in a number of other towns and townships, where Lenin lived and worked.

In the possession of the Museum of Revolution there is a copious collection devoted to the revolutionary movement in Russia. In this museum, too, there is a collection of gifts to the Soviet Government and the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, sent from all the countries of the world. Among these gifts are exquisite works of art and folk crafts.

The history of the land from ancient times to our own day is reflected in the collection of the Museum of History. The Armoury Museum situated on the territory of the Moscow Kremlin contains unique collections of arms, tableware, fabrics, garments and utensils which had belonged to the Russian tsars and nobles. The Armoury Museum boasts of the richest collection of horse-drawn carriages in the world.

The Polytechnical Museum, which has more than 250,000 items tracing past and present technical progress in the USSR, is the main technological museum. Worthy of special mention among the natural science museums is the Darwin Museum.

Interesting and extensive collections are to be found at the Marx and Engels Museum, the Museum of the Soviet Army, the Museum of Oriental Art, Museum of Russian Architecture (Moscow), the Museum of Defence of Stalingrad, the Museum of Anthropology at the Moscow University, the Ethnographical Museum in Leningrad, Paleontological Museum of the USSR Academy of Sciences, the Timiryazev Biological Museum, the Literary and Theatrical museums.

Notable, too, is the group of memorial museums. It includes the Pushkin memorial museums (Moscow and Leningrad), Leo Tolstoi museums (two in Moscow and the Yasnaya Polyana estate, where Tolstoi spent the greater part of his life), Dostoyevsky, Stanislavsky, Mayakovsky museums (Moscow), Chekhov museums (Moscow and Yalta), Gorky (Moscow and Gorky), Tchaikovsky (Klin, Moscow Region), Shevchenko (Kiev), Kolas (Minsk), Tsiolkovsky (Kaluga, Russian Federation).

Palaces and mansions of important historical, architectural and artistic interest which formerly belonged to the Russian royal family, aristocracy or the rich have been converted into museums, such as Petrodvorets and Pavlovsk (Leningrad), Ostankino (Moscow), Arkhangelskoye, Kuskoovo, Abramtsevo (near Moscow) and others.

Museums are maintained by the state. Large sums of money (about 20 million roubles) are annually allocated for their expansion and the replenishment of their collections. Museums are very popular and have an annual attendance of 75 million visitors. They conduct research and educational work, publish books, arrange lectures and public gatherings.

WHAT ARE THE USSR'S MAJOR ART MUSEUMS AND PICTURE GALLERIES?

There are 132 art museums and picture galleries in the USSR.

The largest collection of Russian art in the world is housed in the Tretyakov Gallery in Moscow. It numbers 37,000 pictures, sculptures and works of graphic art from the 11th to the 20th century. The greatest Russian painters, beginning with Andrei Rublev (15th century) and ending with Repin, Surikov, Levitan and Serov (end of the 19th and the beginning of the 20th century), as well as the better known Soviet artists, are represented here. The gallery boasts a splendid collection of Russian icons from the 11th to the 17th centuries.

On view at the Hermitage Museum in Leningrad is the art of ancient Egypt, Greek and Roman sculpture, the works of Raphael, Leonardo da Vinci, Michelangelo, Giorgione, Titian, Murillo, Velasquez, Gainsborough, Poussin, Watteau and many other great masters, amazingly rich collections of pictures by Dutch and Flemish masters of the 17th century (Rembrandt, Rubens, Van Dyck), a rare collection of objects of art discovered during the excavation of Scythian tombs and the sites of ancient cities near the Black Sea coast, unique antiques found in burial mounds, as well as impressive collections of porcelain, coins and medals—in all nearly 2,400,000 specimens.

The Russian Museum in Leningrad is famous for its collection of Russian paintings of the 18th century and the first half of the 19th century. This museum has the best collection of Russian sculpture in the USSR.

In the Pushkin Museum of Fine Arts (Moscow), the art of the ancient East, antiquity and Western Europe is represented. The museum boasts a fine collection of Fayum portraits and pictures by Rembrandt, Rubens, Poussin and French impressionists and post-impressionists. This museum possesses a unique collection of copies of the finest sculptures of antiquity, the Middle Ages and the Renaissance.

Impressive collections are on view at the art museums and picture galleries of Kiev, Tbilisi, Baku, Yerevan, Odessa, Gorky, Irkutsk and many other towns. There are fine

picture galleries in such comparatively small towns as Serpukhov, Kirov, Tambov (Russian Federation) and Feodosia (the Ukraine).

HOW MANY LIBRARIES ARE THERE IN THE USSR?

There are over 370,000 libraries containing 2,300 million books and magazines (almost ten copies per capita of the population). Lending libraries (135,000) cater to a local membership. There are public libraries of a universal character and specialised libraries with books in one particular branch of knowledge, school libraries (nearly 200,000), college libraries, libraries belonging to research institutes and public organisations (mainly trade unions) and collective farms.

No fees are charged and membership is open to all.

Most libraries (public, specialised, lending and libraries at educational institutions) are maintained out of state funds. Factory and state-farm libraries belong to the trade unions, collective-farm libraries, to the collective farms.

In the USSR there are 100 library books per each citizen, the USA has 11 and tsarist Russia had 6.

WHAT ARE THE BEST KNOWN LIBRARIES?

The USSR's biggest and most important library is the Lenin State Library (Moscow). It contains 24 million books, magazines and newspaper files in 160 languages of the world. Copies of everything published in the USSR and a good deal of what is published abroad are received by this library. It exchanges books with 2,700 libraries and research institutions in 80 countries of the world. This library has unique editions—ancient manuscripts and first copies of books in many languages. Readers (2 million a year) have access to 100,000 microfilms of books, newspapers, magazines and manuscripts. The stock of books at the Saltykov-Shchedrin Library in Leningrad runs into 12 million volumes. This library was founded in 1795.

There are 2 million volumes, including 50,000 rare editions, some of which are unique, at the Public History Library in Moscow.

The Library of the USSR Academy of Sciences has about 300 branch libraries with a total of 23 million volumes and magazines. The Academy of Sciences Library in Leningrad, which is one of the major sections of this library system, was founded in 1714, its stock of books numbering over 4,500,000 copies. In the possession of the All-Union Library of Foreign Literature in Moscow there are more than 3 million volumes, magazines and books in 120 languages.

Books and magazines in all fields of technology in the languages of the peoples of the USSR and of other lands are collected in the USSR Library of Technical Sciences.

The Central Polytechnical Library in Moscow has over 2 million books in Russian and foreign languages, including special technical literature (descriptions of patents, standards, specifications, etc.).

At the Central Theatre Library there are 100,000 books on theatre, 1,500 files of theatre magazines, 40,000 engravings and 200,000 newspaper and magazine clippings.

Among other leading libraries there are specialised libraries which offer to the reader books on agriculture, education, building and architecture. There is also the reference library of the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions and others. Mention must be made, too, of the world famous Matenadaran (Armenia), with its unique collection of ancient Oriental manuscripts.

HOW IS BOOK PUBLISHING HANDLED IN THE USSR?

Over 1,300 million copies of books are published annually in the USSR—more than in any other country of the world. Every fourth book published in the world is put out in the USSR, making an average of 5.5 books per capita of the population (the world average is two books per capita).

Publishing houses are divided into two categories—state and public. Private publishers do not exist. In most cases publishers are specialised, that is, they cover some special field of subject-matter. The leading publishers include «Mysl» (Thought), dealing with social and economic literature; Politizdat, publishing political literature; «Štatistika», «Nedra» (Natural Resources), «Svyaz» (Communi-

cations), Publishers of Fiction, «Iskusstvo» (Art), Publishers of Children's Literature, Higher School Publishers, «Progress» and «Mir» (World), «Physical Culture and Sport», Soviet Encyclopaedia and Scientific Books Publishers.

Republican and regional publishers issue books and booklets of local interest.

Publishing houses function under the auspices of trade unions, the Communist Party, Young Communist League, Novosti Press Agency (its publications and books are mainly for the reader abroad) and other public organisations. Religious organisations and societies also publish their own books. An author incurs no expenses involved in publishing his book. He is entitled to royalties dependent on the size, edition and nature of the book. Each publishing house signs an appropriate contract with the author.

As a rule, publishers hand over all they print to state and cooperative book-sellers. The retailers make themselves familiar with publishing plans and put in requests for books in advance. There is a far-flung network of book stores in the country.

By 1970 the total issue of books will grow by about 25 per cent. Some 50 big printing houses for magazines and newspapers will be built or reconstructed by 1970.

HOW LARGE ARE THE EDITIONS AND IN WHAT LANGUAGES ARE BOOKS PRINTED IN THE USSR?

A typical feature of book publishing in the USSR is the large number of copies in which books are printed. Not only separate books but editions of many volumes (collected works, encyclopaedias) are printed in 200,000-300,000 and more copies.

Scientific and technical books top the list of Soviet publications (in the number of titles). But text-books, fiction, socio-economic and political books, as well as children's books, come out in the largest number of copies.

The post-revolutionary years (1918-65) have seen the publication of about 2,000,000 books with the total number of copies running into almost 30,000 million. The works by Lenin have been printed in 328 million copies, Marx and Engels in 80 million copies, Leo Tolstoi 118 million, Pushkin 111 million, Gorky 106 million, Chekhov 68.5 million,

Mayakovsky 52 million, Sholokhov 43 million, Jack London 26 million, Balzac 22.6 million, Dickens 20 million, Shakespeare 5.7 million, Rabindranath Tagore 4.5 million.

Examples of recent years give an idea of the large number of copies in which editions of collected works are printed: Pushkin (10 volumes), 300,000 copies; Dostoyevsky (10 volumes), 100,000 copies; Yesenin (five volumes), 500,000 copies; Stefan Zweig (seven volumes), 385,000 copies; Boccaccio's *Decameron*, 375,000; a two-volume edition of Hemingway, 300,000 copies; novels by the Indian writer Sh. P. Takaji (*Shrimps* and *Two Measures of Rice*), 500,000 copies.

Books are published in 89 languages of the USSR and 54 languages of other lands.

In 1966 the USSR published 77,000 book titles with a total print of 1,300 million copies.

HOW MUCH DO BOOKS COST?

Books are extremely cheap, to be within reach of the widest sections of the population. The average price of textbooks and books of general instruction is 26 kopecks per book, agriculture, 27 kopecks; fiction, 40 kopecks; scientific books, 52 kopecks. By way of comparison, it may be pointed out that a cinema ticket costs from 10 to 50 kopecks. There are more expensive books, of course, such as fundamental works in scientific research, richly illustrated books on art, academic editions, gift editions. These, too, have wide sales. For example, an edition like *Science and Mankind* (a collection of essays by scientists of different lands) printed in 100,000 copies and costing 1 rouble 60 kopecks was sold out very quickly; a *World History of Art*, published in eight volumes, with each volume costing seven roubles (this is one of the most expensive editions in the USSR) attracted 65,000 subscribers. Books can be bought on the instalment plan (where the cost is 25 roubles or more). Old and rare books are sold and bought at second-hand book shops.

HOW MANY NEWSPAPERS AND MAGAZINES ARE PUBLISHED?

1965 saw the publication of 7,687 newspapers and 3,846 magazines.

There are three large subdivisions of the press—central, republican and local. Central organs of the press as a rule are published in Moscow, reprinted from matrices in other towns and circulated throughout the country. They deal with vital problems in the field of economics, politics, public life and scientific and cultural developments of importance to the entire country. Republican organs of the press are printed in the capitals of the Republics and the local press in territorial, regional and district centres. In addition to these publications, big plants, building projects, universities and other educational institutions print their own newspapers.

Central newspapers with the widest circulation are *Pravda* (7 million copies)¹, *Izvestia* (8,400,000), *Trud* (2.4 million), *Selskaya Zhizn* (6,700,000), *Komsomolskaya Pravda* (6,900,000), *Krasnaya Zvezda* (2,400,000), *Literaturnaya Gazeta* (500,000), *Sovetsky Sport* (2,500,000), *Pionerskaya Pravda* (9,300,000), *Sovetskaya Kultura*, *Meditinskaya Gazeta* (1,000,000), *Uchitelskaya Gazeta* (2,000,000)¹; the magazines: *Ogonyok* (illustrated weekly, 2 million copies), *Kommunist* (theoretical journal, 700,000), *Rabotnitsa* (for women, 10 million), *Krestyanka* (5,200,000), *Vokrug Sveta* (a popular geographical journal, 2,600,000), *Smena* (youth magazine, 1.1 million copies), *Nauka i Zhizn* (3,600,000), *Tekhnika Molodezhy* (1,600,000), *New Times* (socio-political weekly), *Yunost* (literary magazine for youth, 2 million copies), *Krokodil* (magazine of satire and humour, 4,600,000 copies), *Novy Mir* (literary monthly), *Inostrannaya Literatura* (monthly of current world literature), *Zdorovye* (popular medical monthly, 8 mln. copies), *Murzilka* (children's magazine, 5,600,000), *Veselye Kartinki* (children's magazine, 5 million), *Sovetsky Ekran* (2,800,000), *Politicheskoe Samoobrazovanie* (1,500,000), *Za Rulem* (2,000,000), *Semya i Shkola* (1,500,000), *Radio* (1 million). The magazines are published in 58 languages (in 44 languages of the peoples of the USSR, and in 14 foreign languages).

¹ Data for January 1967.

Among the leading newspapers published in the fraternal Republics are *Sovetskaya Rossiya*, *Pravda Ukrainy*, *Zarya Vostoka* (Georgia), *Sovetskaya Byelorussiya*, *Pravda Vostoka* (Uzbekistan), *Kazakhstanskaya Pravda*. In all the Union Republics newspapers are published in Russian and the local languages. *Sovietisch Heimland* is a literary monthly printed in Yiddish.

The daily circulation of newspapers and magazines is 220 million copies.

The total annual circulation of newspapers (central, republican and local) runs into 23,100 million copies. The daily circulation exceeds 100 million copies (which is nearly a third of all the newspapers printed in the world). Magazines have an annual circulation of over 1,500 million.

In 1913 there were 2 newspaper copies and 62 books for every 100 of Russia's population; the figures for 1965 are 45 newspaper copies, 37 magazine copies and 550 books per 100 population.

Newspaper circulation will grow by 40 per cent and magazine circulation more than 50 per cent by 1970.

WHO OWNS THE NEWSPAPERS AND MAGAZINES?

They are owned by state and public organisations.

Izvestia is the organ of the Soviets of Workers' Deputies; *Pravda*, *Selskaya Zhizn* and *Economicheskaya Gazeta* of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union; *Trud* of the trade unions; *Krasnaya Zvezda* of the Ministry of Defence; *Literaturnaya Gazeta* of the Writers' Union; *Komsomolskaya Pravda* and *Pionerskaya Pravda* of the Central Committee of the Komsomol; *Sovetskaya Kultura* of the Ministry of Culture of the USSR; *Medit-sinsky Rabotnik* of the Ministry of Public Health; *Sovetsky Sport* of sports associations.

There are 16 newspapers for teachers, another 16 are devoted to various aspects of culture, literature and arts; six newspapers deal with engineering, industries and transport and seven with agriculture. There are 138 newspapers for the youth and 25 for children.

Scientific journals are published by the Academy of Sciences and by publishers on technology. Journals are

published by societies of nature lovers, hunters and anglers, by religious societies and other public and cooperative organisations.

HOW DO SOVIET NEWSPAPERS AND MAGAZINES CONNECT WITH THEIR READERS?

Every newspaper endeavours to draw into its activities a large portion of the reading public. Contributions are extremely welcome from worker and rural correspondents, men of science and culture, school teachers, medical men, technical and farm experts and public workers, all of whom are closely in touch with life and well conversant with their subjects.

Contributions by readers, news reporting and commissioned articles and stories make up the bulk of a newspaper's printed matter. Every newspaper runs a column for letters to the editor. This page features readers' articles and items in which burning issues are tackled in a sharply critical manner, important suggestions made and controversial opinions expressed.

Magazines and journals are made up mostly of material written by specialists in their field, but also give space to letters from readers. These letters contain criticism or praise of what the magazine publishes, suggestions to the editors to deal with various problems, to improve the quality of the printed matter, the lay-out of the magazine and so on.

A newspaper's work is often judged by the extent of its correspondence with readers and by its thoughtful and efficient handling of their grievances.

In the USSR press organs persistently strive for a maximum satisfaction of demands in readers' letters. This above all applies to critical letters demanding the eradication of shortcomings and the punishment of those guilty of lapses and abuses. It is incumbent upon all offices and institutions to give careful thought to letters published in the press or forwarded to them by newspaper staffs. They must send in replies and take the necessary measures.

WHAT HEADWAY HAS RADIO MADE?

The first central radio station began broadcasting on August 21, 1922.

Today, radio broadcasts (including those conducted in Union Republics, regions and other areas) can be heard in more than 65 languages of nationalities inhabiting the USSR. The average daily broadcasts amount to over a thousand hours. At present, more than 40 million radio sets and more than 35 million radio relays are owned by the public. Radio Moscow broadcasts to foreign countries in 54 languages of the world and ten languages of the USSR. Soviet radio programmes are gaining an ever wider audience abroad. Radio Moscow gets annually from 115,000 to 120,000 letters from its foreign listeners. Russian lessons are broadcast to listeners abroad.

WHAT IS THE POSITION OF TELEVISION?

Television broadcasts in the USSR amount to 850 hours daily. There were two television centres in 1952. In 1966, their number increased to 130 and there were 600 relay stations. Television viewers of the Moscow studio number more than 70 million. The total number of people watching TV broadcasts is 115 million.

The years 1967-68 will see the commissioning in Moscow of one of Europe's biggest TV centres with a 533-metre transmitting tower. In 1967 it will start broadcasting four black-and-white programmes and will add a colour programme in 1968. When all relay network and stations are completed the Television Centre in Moscow will have 200 million viewers, almost the entire country.

In April 1965 the Soviet Union launched the first in its series of communication satellites *Molniya-1*. The USSR employs the joint Soviet-French colour television system «SECAM III».

USSR television was the first in the world to broadcast from outer space. Soviet broadcasts were conducted directly from spaceships. On Intervision and Eurovision millions of televiewers in Europe were able to watch the Soviet

cosmonauts during their flight, to see breath-taking walk of A. Leonov into outer space.

Soviet television exchanges broadcasts with over 30 countries.

WHAT TITLES AND AWARDS ARE CONFERRED ON ARTISTS AND CULTURAL WORKERS?

The highest honorary titles are People's Artist of the USSR, People's Artiste of the USSR. The Union Republics have corresponding titles of their own: People's Artist of the Republic (for example, of the Russian Federation, of the Georgian Soviet Socialist Republic), People's Artiste of the Republic, Merited Artiste of the Republic, and also Merited Doctor of the Republic, Merited Teacher of the Republic, Merited Scientist of the Republic.

The Republics award their own prizes in literature, music and arts. The annual awards in the Russian Federation are named after Gorky (literature), Glinka (music) and Repin (painting), and others.

The highest national awards are USSR State Prizes and the Lenin Prizes.

USSR State Prizes are awarded for major achievements in science, engineering, literature, arts and architecture. Of the 60 State Prizes awarded annually 50 are for scientists and engineers and 10 for writers, artists and architects. The prizes of 5,000 roubles each are conferred on November 7, the day of the October Revolution.

Winners of the State Prize are given the title «Laureate of the USSR State Prize,» a diploma and a medal.

Lenin Prizes are awarded for outstanding accomplishments in science and technology, literature, arts and architecture which have won broad public recognition. Once in two years 25 Lenin Prizes are awarded for science and technology and 5 for literature, arts and architecture.

The winner receives 10,000 roubles (some 11,000 US dollars), the title «Lenin Prize Laureate,» a diploma and a gold medal with the image of Lenin.

The two prizes are awarded by the Committee for Lenin and State Prizes in Science and Technology and the Committee for Lenin and State Prizes in Literature, Arts and Architecture of the USSR Council of Ministers, consisting

respectively of 121 and 108 outstanding scientists, artists, cultural workers and representatives of public organisations.

The list of works nominated for Lenin prizes is published in the newspaper *Izvestia*. They are discussed in organisations and enterprises and in the press, and the prize is awarded on April 22, Lenin's birthday.

Among the Lenin Prize winners have been writers and poets Sholokhov, Tvardovsky, Chukovsky, Mejelaitis, Smuul, Gonchar and Smirnov; composers Shostakovich, Khachaturyan and Solovyov-Sedoi; artists Favorsky, Saryan, Gerasimov, Korin, Prorokov, Deineka, and Kupriyanov, Krylov, Sokolov (Kukryniksy); sculptors Konenkov, Anikushin and Kerbel; film producers Chukhrai, Kozintsev; musicians Oistrakh, Richter, Rostropovich, Gilels, and Kogan, conductor Mravinsky, singer Dolukhanova, actors Ulanova, Pashennaya, Bondarchuk, Cherkasov, Smoktunovsky, Mordvinov, Ulyanov, Zakariadze, stage producer Zavadsky and other outstanding figures in culture and arts.

In 1967, poet Mikhail Svetlov, composer Kara-Karayev, ballet master Igor Moiseyev, artist Pimenov, and stage producer R. Simonov were awarded Lenin Prize.

Recreation and Entertainment

HOW MUCH TIME IS USUALLY DEVOTED TO WORK AND LEISURE?

The regular working day is seven hours. For some trades it is reduced to six, five and even four hours a day.

According to a decision adopted by the government in March 1967, nearly 66 million wage and salary earners will be on a five-day working week with two days off by November 1967. The total number of working hours per week will remain unchanged. On the whole more time is spent on leisure than work. The way this leisure time is spent varies a great deal. There is the choice of seeing a film at the local cinema or a play at the theatre, staying at home and reading the latest novel, watching TV, stepping out for a concert or a gala occasion at the factory, trade union or collective farm club, attending a hobby circle, listening to a popular lecture at a university of culture and so on.

HOW DO PEOPLE SPEND THEIR FREE TIME?

It depends on inclinations and tastes. Interests range from amateur photography and modelling to hunting and angling, from parachute jumping and underwater swimming to stamp-collecting and playing in a jazz band. The Soviet Union is a reading nation. Its people are also very fond of television, theatre and cinema.

As everywhere else, families may have company at the week-end, or go out to see friends themselves. The youngsters (and many who are older) may go dancing in a restaurant after seeing a film or play.

Sunday is the day for picnics, berry-picking and mushroom-hunting in the woods in the summer and skiing in the winter.

Those who like to stay at home may call friends over for chess, lotto, cards or other table games, discussions of personal and public matters, dancing or TV viewing.

HOW DO THE WORKERS USUALLY SPEND THEIR HOLIDAYS?

Annual paid leaves range from two weeks to two months.

Urbanites usually set off for the country or seaside. Millions of Soviet people spend their holidays on the Caucasian and Crimean coasts of the Black Sea, on the shore of the Gulf of Finland and many other places in the USSR, where a large number of holiday homes, sanatoriums and spas has been set up and placed at the service of the working people. Today there are over 4,500 sanatoriums and holiday homes in the Soviet Union. In 1966 some 8,500,000 people vacationed or received medical treatment in these institutions.

Some people prefer a holiday to restore their health while others are after new meetings and acquaintances; some spend their holidays in gay and noisy tourist centres, others would rather sit quietly with a fishing rod on a river bank—everyone to his tastes.

Each year sees more and more Soviet citizens going off to resorts in Poland, Czechoslovakia and Bulgaria, touring Western Europe, Africa, Asia, America and sailing round

Europe. In 1966, above one million Soviet tourists visited more than 100 countries.

WHAT IS A HOLIDAY HOME?

It is a state-run boarding house. Here one can get rest and recreation. As a rule it caters to holiday-makers in good health while sanatoriums provide accommodation for those who need medical observation and care.

There are several types of holiday homes, including weekend homes situated in suburban localities. Other types of holiday homes at resorts accommodate people from two to four weeks.

All in all, above 800 holiday homes are today functioning in the Soviet Union. They take care of close to 4 million holiday-makers every year.

WHICH HOLIDAY CENTRES ARE MOST POPULAR?

Yalta, Miskhor and Koktebel on the southern coast of the Crimea; Sochi, Gagra, Pitsunda and Sukhumi on the Caucasian coast of the Black Sea; Pyatigorsk, Essentuki, Zheleznovodsk and Kislovodsk health resorts with their noted mineral springs; Gulf of Finland on the Baltic Sea, Palanga, Svetlogorsk and other first-class resorts on the beaches stretching from Leningrad to the Polish border. The Truskavets balneological centre in the Western Ukraine is world famous.

The Soviet Union has discovered and developed 4,000 mineral springs and 700 sources of medicinal mud. More than 500 spas have been opened.

In 1966 three million people spent their holidays in 2,200 of the country's sanatoriums. More than 650,000 people received treatment and meals at sanatoriums while living at private houses.

WHAT'S IT LIKE AT THE RESORTS?

A good night's sleep and refreshing nap in the afternoon on open porches, morning exercises, curative physical cul-

ture, cure de terrain—all this, plus pure, exhilarating mountain and sea air, good meals, and medical care make the worker feel hale and hearty and put ailing people on the road to rapid recovery.

At the disposal of the holiday-makers are sports grounds, motor boats, sailing boats, pedaloes, aqualungs and excursion boats and coaches. There are skis and skates available in winter in the temperate belt and northern regions of the country. All health resorts have cinemas, concert halls, dance halls, cafes and restaurants.

Electric, water, physiotherapeutic and other treatments are provided, along with balneological therapy. Many medical consultation centres have also been set up.

WHO GETS SANATORIUM AND HOLIDAY HOME ACCOMMODATION AND HOW ARE PLACES ALLOCATED?

Every worker can get accommodation for himself and his family. Distribution at the factories, offices and state farms is supervised by the local trade union committees and at collective farms by their boards. Accommodation for people needing treatment is allocated in accordance with recommendations of doctors, whereas holiday home accommodation does not require medical certificate.

The cost of accommodations for 24 days ranges from 60 to 90 roubles—less than the normal holiday pay. Accommodation for 80 per cent of the workers going off on holidays is either free or provided at a 70 per cent discount. In this case they are paid for by the trade unions out of the social insurance fund. In 1967 4.9 million industrial and office workers will get sanatorium and holiday home accommodation either free of charge or at a discount (i.e. 250,000 people more than in 1966).

At the resorts, one will find all sorts of people—a collective farmer and scientist, a charwoman and an army general, a miner and a writer, a student and a bricklayer.

Soviet sanatoriums and holiday homes can accommodate 700,000 people at a time. By 1970 they will be able to receive 200,000 more holiday-makers. Even then the demand will

exceed the number of accommodations, since many more vacationists, especially in summer time, stay in hotels, boarding houses and private houses.

WHAT ARE RECREATION PARKS?

They are to be found in town and country, usually in wooded areas. They provide plenty of facilities for wholesome recreation, have sports and amusement grounds, and put on films, plays, have concerts, lectures, exhibitions, literary discussions, chess tournaments, amateur talent shows, song-and-dance festivals, carnivals and mass games of all kinds. Very popular, for example, are song festivals held annually in Mezha Park in Riga. Carnivals, night balls, contests, games, dances and side shows are organised in recreation parks much like in amusement parks abroad.

There are 2,000 recreation parks in the Soviet Union.

HOW LONG ARE SCHOOL AND COLLEGE HOLIDAYS?

School holidays occur four times a year: for one week at the end of the autumn term, 10 days at mid-term in the winter, one more week in the spring, and from two-and-a-half to three months in the summer. Students have a fortnight's holiday at mid-term and two months more in the summer.

HOW DO SCHOOLCHILDREN SPEND THEIR HOLIDAYS?

In 1966, over 5.3 million boys and girls spent their summer holidays in pioneer camps set up by the trade unions in the countryside.

Accommodation is available to every family, and some is provided free.

The world-famous camp Artek, on the Crimean coast of the Black Sea, caters to more than 2,200 children from different countries at a time.

For children who remain in town day camps are set up in schools, palaces of culture, clubs or simply big apart-

ment houses. Here they engage in various interesting and useful activities. In 1966 about two million children attended such day camps in towns and collective farms. Pupils have free use of sports facilities and equipment. They also have free admission to certain sports competitions. Sports meets, hikes and rallies are organised during summer and winter vacations. Many school pupils are engaged in interesting local lore studies: the natural conditions, historical monuments and places of interest of the region, where they live.

WHAT ARE PIONEER CAMPS?

They consist of permanent houses or tents where school-age boys and girls spend their holidays. Each camp has an open-air theatre, library, sports grounds, bathing beach on the riverside or lakeshore, orchard, laboratory and workshop. They belong to the trade unions, school and collective farms. In 1966 there were more than 9,000 pioneer camps.

WHAT ARE PIONEER CLUBS?

They are clubs where many schoolchildren of all grades spend their leisure hours. Large cities have district Pioneer Clubs and the town Pioneer Club or Palace. Various contests and competitions, dancing, singing and theatrical circles, literary and technical conferences and disputes, art and technical exhibitions, excursions and hobby circles, from archaeology to cosmonaut groups—such is roughly the range of activities of an ordinary Pioneer Club.

The Leningrad Pioneer Club has some 300 rooms, with dozens of laboratories, 800 technical and other hobby circles and studios, which have a total membership of 22,000. The club, which also has its own puppet theatre and winter garden, is daily visited by 7,000 boys and girls.

HOW DO YOUNG PEOPLE SPEND THEIR LEISURE TIME?

Sports, amusement, hobby circles, technical and art exhibitions, museums, tourism, amateur radio, photography and film-making—this is not by far a complete range

of interests. Film-going, theatre-going and dancing at restaurants are given preference in evening hours.

Parties, picnics, mushroom and berry-picking excursions, swimming and boating are all very popular in the summer. Birthdays, graduation from school and college and other notable private occasions of this kind are celebrated in the family circle.

WHAT ARE YOUTH CAFÉS?

They are gaily decorated modern premises where you can dance, take part in verse-reading and spontaneous glee club sessions. Chess and serious talks in the afternoon give way to amateur films, jazz bands, poetry and songs competitions in the evening. Naturally, there are plenty of lively debates and heated discussions at all tables occupied by young people.

ARE OPEN DEBATES POPULAR AMONG THE YOUTH?

Yes. They debate vital social matters, industrial or farm problems, science, ideology, culture and art. Debates and discussions are held in clubs, school and university halls, youth cafes and libraries as well as in the youth press.

Young people from abroad and their Soviet colleagues get together regularly for debates at Moscow's Friendship House. The topics, usually suggested by foreign guests, range from aesthetic and philosophical questions to trade union and economic matters.

WHAT HOLIDAYS ARE CELEBRATED IN THE USSR?

The biggest holidays are the anniversary of the Great October Socialist Revolution, marked on November 7-8, and May Day, celebrated on May 1-2. Both occasions are marked by traditional military parades and mass demonstrations of the working people in Moscow, the capitals of all the Union Republics and other big cities. Concerts are held on open-air stages and gala parties take place in clubs. Many celebrate at home with relatives and friends.

The other national holidays are International Women's Day (March 8), the Day of Victory over Nazi Germany (May 9), Soviet Constitution Day (December 5) and New Year (January 1).

Among other notable dates commemorated in the Soviet Union are the birthday of, Lenin the founder of the Soviet state and the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (April 22). Other special occasions are Press Day (May 5), Soviet Army Day (February 23), Railwaymen's Day, Builders' Day, Miners' Day, Aviation Day (with an air display over Moscow) and Physical Culture Day. All of these events are highlighted by demonstration of achievements in that particular field. They are widely commented on in the press, on radio and television. The «youngest» of such holidays is Cosmonauts' Day (April 12).

Believers, of course, observe their religious holidays.

WHAT IS THE «RUSSIAN WINTER HOLIDAY»?

It is a carnival period with feasts and a gay time for all. It is a time when housewives show their skill in making pancakes served with sour cream, salmon and caviar. Away from the festive tables, the merry-makers go sleigh-riding, pelt one another with snowballs, slide down ice-covered chutes, compete in games calling for a display of skill, adroitness and resource. A Russian winter holiday is also a time for bazaars.

Many Soviet nationalities have holidays of their own.

ARE THERE ANY ALL-NIGHT RESTAURANTS AND FLOOR SHOWS IN THE SOVIET UNION?

There are no night-clubs in the country. Theatrical performances end not later than 11 p. m., and the cinemas close before midnight, the time when restaurants also close. The exceptions are the round-the-clock restaurants at big airports and railway stations. Floor shows, as known in the West, are non-existent in the Soviet Union.

IS THERE ANY GAMBLING IN THE USSR?

There are no gambling houses and football pools in the Soviet Union. The only betting done, in keeping with tradition, is at the race-tracks.

History shows that gambling has never, to put it mildly, promoted human morals, which explains why it finds no encouragement in the USSR. This, however, does not mean that billiards, poker and other card games, dominoes and other table games with side bets are taboo here. The wagers are moderate, and society itself sees to it that these games do not become a source of profit for a certain category of people.

WHAT HOBBIES ARE MOST POPULAR?

First of all, collecting stamps, coins, matchbox labels, picture postcards, records, tape recordings, pipes, wine-bottle labels, sea-shells, safety-razor blades, badges, medals and other items. Collectors have societies of their own which hold exhibitions, establish contacts with their counterparts in other countries, and assist beginners. There are 4 million philatelists in the USSR.

Technical modelling, chess, draughts, and amateur photography are among other popular hobbies. As for books, private libraries are found in every home.

ARE THERE MANY RADIO FANS IN THE USSR?

The one million circulation of the journal *Radio* is indicative of the interest in radio.

Fans are divided into two main categories. The majority consists of people who build electronic communications and broadcasting sets. Recently they have been introducing radioelectronic instruments of their own design into industrial, scientific and medical establishments.

In 1963-64 amateur designers received more than 300 patents for their inventions. The Columbus Prize, one of the highest annual international awards for short-wave radio fans established by the Italian Institute of International Communications in Genoa, was won in 1964 by Dr. I. Akulichev of the Soviet Union for his set of original electronic equipment used in medicine.

The second category are «hams» who have a classification system and champions of their own.

«Hams» establish short-wave and ultra-short-wave contacts with all parts of the world. There are some 14,000 collective and individual radio stations in the Soviet Union.

Amateurs from scores of countries participate in the international «ham» contest organised in the Soviet Union each year on May 7, Radio Day.

Since 1960 Soviet radio amateurs have been participating in the popular international radio «Fox-Hunting» contest, and they have won the European championship several times.

ARE THERE MANY CAMERA FANS?

The Soviet Union puts out a wide range of first-class cameras of the latest design, which are very popular in other countries, too. Soviet photo and movie cameras are exported to more than 70 countries.

The number of amateur photographers runs into millions. They unite astronauts, schoolchildren, scientists, car drivers—people in all walks of life. More than 400 movies were entered in the final round of the 3rd All-Union Contest of Amateur Films in 1965.

There are some 3,000 amateur film studios at factories, offices and schools. Big cities have laboratories for processing black-and-white and colour films taken by amateurs.

Sports

HOW MANY PEOPLE GO IN FOR SPORTS REGULARLY?

Above 46 million today, compared with 5 million 27 years ago. By contrast, not more than 50,000 took up sports before the Revolution.

WHAT ARE THE MOST POPULAR SPORTS?

If you take a peep into some Moscow backyards, you would see some curious things. In some places volleyball reigns supreme. In neighbouring districts table-tennis is the main attraction. And now badminton is gaining in popularity.

But these are the so-called wildcat sports. If we consider those who go in for regular sports training, we get quite a different picture. More than 6.5 million people go in for track-and-field, 6.6 million for volleyball, almost 5.4 million for skiing, 3.5 million for chess, more than 3 million

for football, more than 3 million for basketball, above one million for gymnastics, 1.2. million for cycling, 1.2 million for swimming.

As far as sport, as entertainment, is concerned, football takes the first place. Football matches attract the greatest attention. Fifteen million sports fans a year fill the grandstands and terraces to watch the top-notch teams. And how many fans watch them comfortably at home on TV!

WHAT NATIONAL SPORTS ARE THERE IN THE COUNTRY?

Every Republic has its own particular sports. Georgia is known for its *chidaoba* (national form of wrestling), *lelo* (a cross between football and rugby), a number of equestrian sports such as *tskhenburti* (a variant of polo), etc. National forms of wrestling and different equestrian sports are popular in Kazakhstan, Kirghizia, Armenia and other Union Republics.

A very popular game in the Russian Federation is *lapta*, a game resembling baseball. Another very popular Russian national game is *gorodki*. Here is a brief description: you have to knock out of a small square a certain number of skittles, put up in different patterns in consecutive order, by throwing sticks from a certain distance.

There are about 100 national sports in the USSR, which are very popular in countryside.

WHAT ARE KEEP-FIT EXERCISES AT WORK?

One or two five-minute breaks for physical exercises are made at most industrial enterprises and offices during the day to help keep workers fit. These exercises are worked out by medical specialists and PT experts, and conducted by skilled instructors. Twice a day, at 11 a. m. and 2 p. m., these five-minute exercises are broadcast throughout the country by Radio Moscow. About 20 million people participate in keep-fit exercises at work.

HOW MANY SPORTS GROUNDS ARE THERE?

This cannot be answered by a single figure. In the beginning of 1966 there were about 2,400 big modern stadiums (seating 1,500 and more people), 64,200 football pitches, 26,200 sports grounds, about 29,000 gyms, over 850 swimming pools and 365,000 tennis, volleyball and basketball courts, etc. The biggest stadiums, each for one hundred thousand spectators, are in Moscow, Leningrad and Kiev.

Sports grounds and structures built in Soviet times can accommodate more than 41 million sportsmen at a time, and thousands of new ones are built every year.

The plan is to build more than 15,000 stadiums and big sports grounds by 1970, and over 13,000 gymnasiums. These will include all-purpose gyms in Moscow and Leningrad seating 40,000 and 25,000 respectively.

A special government decision stipulates that every urban district with 30,000-50,000 residents should have a stadium, a gymnasium, a swimming pool and a shooting gallery.

WHAT ARE THE SPORTS ORGANISATIONS?

There are nearly 200,000 sports organisations at industrial enterprises, offices, schools, collective and state farms. They are included in the sports societies of a city, district, region, Republic or a branch of national economy. The sports associations are divided into Republican and all-Union societies.

The USSR Union of Sports Societies and Organisations directs and coordinates sports activities. Sport is considered an important means for promoting health. Both the Soviet Olympic Committee and the trade unions take an active part in sports guidance. They generously spend the money at their command on popularising sport among factory and office workers. There are 36 sports societies in the USSR, the most famed of which are «Spartak», «Dynamo», «Burevestnik», «Locomotive», «Vodnik» and «Trud». Most of these societies are for townfolk (either according to district or place of work), but every Union Republic has its rural sports society: in the RSFSR, «Urozhai»; in the Ukraine, «Kolhospnik»; in Uzbekistan, «Pakhtakor», and so on.

Anyone wishing to take up some sport may become a member of a sports society, wear its sports uniform and badge, use its sports facilities and participate in contests. The annual membership fee is 30 kopecks.

HOW ARE TRAINERS PREPARED?

There are 1,250,000 sports instructors and trainers in the Soviet Union without remuneration who do their job in their free time. However, more qualified teaching and training personnel are professionals. At the present time there are more than 40,000 trainers with a higher education and 43,000 with a secondary education working in sports societies and organisations.

The sports educational system embraces every Union Republic and includes 16 physical culture colleges, 52 physical education faculties at teachers' training colleges and universities, 12 specialised physical culture secondary schools and 17 trainers' schools. The total student body in these institutions numbers 45,000 (9,000 graduates a year), a third of whom are women. The higher schools have a four-year course and secondary schools a three-year course.

The Union of Sports Societies and Organisations guides the activities of the physical training colleges.

In 1967 a refresher department for trainers and instructors will be opened at the Central College of Physical Culture in Moscow, and similar courses will be started in Union Republics and some regions. The Ministry of Education will also open courses for sports instructors at teachers' refresher colleges.

WHAT SPORTS RATING SYSTEM IS USED IN THE USSR?

A single, uniform sports rating system for the entire USSR was established for the first time at the beginning of the thirties. It included the standards and requirements for ten different sports: track-and-field, gymnastics, weight-lifting, boxing, wrestling, swimming, tennis, fencing, speed-skating and shooting. There are three sports

ratings: 3rd, 2nd and 1st. The highest category is a Master of Sport.

As the sports achievements mounted, the standards and requirements of the sports rating system were reviewed and stepped up, and more sports were covered by this system. It has now spread to include 53 sports, with such events as badminton, helicopter sport, skin-diving and archery recently included for the first time. There is also a junior sports rating system to encourage the development of sports for children and juveniles.

The strictness of the demands of the existing sports rating system may be judged by the fact that men clocking of 12.4 sec. for the 100-m sprint get the 3rd category, 2nd category for 11.6 sec., and 1st category for 11 sec., while 10.4 sec. entitles the sprinter to the rank of Master of Sport.

Thirty years ago only 50 of the country's best sportsmen had this title. Now the Soviet Union has over 56,000 Masters of Sport, of whom 1,200 are Honoured Masters of Sport (this signal title is conferred on sportsmen for special achievements, such as capturing an Olympic, World or European title).

HOW GOOD ARE SOVIET SPORTSMEN?

Categorical assertions as to the superiority of some versus others are quite risky in sports. Not so long ago the Canadians were considered the hockey masters. Now European hockey players can teach them a lesson or two. Nevertheless, there are some objective indices in sports that enable one to make fairly definite assessments.

One-third of the Soviet records are world records.

In 1965, 92 World and European records were set, 116 gold, 59 silver and 35 bronze medals were won at the World Championships. There are certain sports where the USSR is generally recognised to be especially strong. This is true of hockey, track-and-field, gymnastics, volleyball, box, fencing, chess, basketball, paired figure-skating and some kinds of wrestling.

Victories alternate with defeats, and defeats with victories, but on the whole the skill of Soviet sportsmen is on the upgrade. This is apparent from achievements in the world sports. Vladimir Kuts and Valeri Brumel were recognised at various times as Sportsmen of the Year and

headed the ten best athletes of the world. Both of them also received the Italian Golden Caravelle Prize. Decathlon champion Vasili Kuznetsov, sculler Vyacheslav Ivanov, discus thrower Tamara Press and high-jumper Valeri Brumel have all received the Holmes Prize, the annual award in the USA to Europe's best sportsman.

WHAT ARE THE USSR'S ACHIEVEMENTS IN WORLD SPORTS?

Until 1946 Soviet sports federations were not members of international sports associations and the achievements of Soviet sportsmen were not recognised officially. Today Soviet sports organisations are members of 45 international associations, and Soviet sportsmen have attained world championship in 33 sports. Most of the sporting world knows the names of athletes Pyotr Bolotnikov, Igor Ter-Ovanesyan, weight-lifters Yuri Vlasov, Leonid Zhabotinsky, speed-skaters Lidia Skoblikova, Valentina Stenina and Yevgeni Grishin, gymnasts Larisa Latynina, Boris Shakhlin, Mikhail Voronin, Natasha Kuchinskaya, modern pentathlete Igor Novikov, skiers Alevtina Kolchina, Klavdia Boyarskikh, chess masters Tigran Petrosian, Mikhail Botvinnik, Mikhail Tahl, Nonna Gaprindashvili and other holders of World and European titles.

The performance of Soviet sportsmen at the Olympic Games was successful.

At the Helsinki Olympics in 1952 the USSR team had the same number of points (in the unofficial team scoring) as the US team, at the 1956 Melbourne Olympics Soviet sportsmen forged into the lead with 624 points against 498 for the Americans. Even greater success was scored at the Rome Olympics (1960), where the USSR team totalled 683.5 points and the Americans 463. At the 1964 Tokyo Olympics the Soviet sportsmen won 96 medals, with 608.3 points, against 90 medals won by the Americans (581.8 points). Four hundred and thirty times national anthems were played at the four latest summer Olympics, and 157 times it was the Soviet anthem.

The total score of Soviet awards at four summer and three winter Olympics is 279 gold, 235 silver and 205 bronze medals.

HAS THE USSR SPORTS RESEARCH INSTITUTES?

There are sports research institutes in Moscow, Leningrad and Tbilisi. They study the scientific principles of man's physical education, better methods of training and other questions appertaining to the theory and practice of sport. Fruitful scientific research of sports is also conducted at various faculties of physical culture colleges and at a number of other scientific establishments, such as the medical colleges, institutes of the USSR Academy of Sciences, the Academy of Medical Sciences and the Academy of Pedagogics.

These research establishments study various sociological, pedagogical, psychological, medical, biological and organisational problems of a mass physical culture movement and of raising the athlete's skill.

HOW ARE NATIONAL CHAMPIONSHIPS ORGANISED IN THE USSR?

Arrangements for such a meet are usually made by an organisational committee set up by the board of a sports federation. Simultaneously, a referees' panel is formed, and the chief referee, the head of the press centre and other people in charge of medical service, housing the participants, arranging their meals and other duties are appointed.

The contests are of three kinds: individual (in which the champions of districts, cities, regions, Republics and of the USSR as a whole are determined), team (in which the standing of teams representing factories, collective farms, districts, cities, regions, Union Republics and sports societies are determined) and individual-team (in which a double score is kept). In addition, contests are quite frequently arranged, with several sports events taking place at the same time. These are called «spartakiads.»

HOW ARE REFEREES TRAINED?

Referees take special courses to get the necessary theoretical knowledge, which is subsequently supplemented by practical work.

At all major meets there are special information referees who help the spectators grasp all the finer points of the sports battles, inform them about the participants, acquaint them with the rules in general and particularly new ones. Refereeing in all sports is done on a voluntary basis; none of the USSR's 1.5 million referees are professionals.

WHAT IS THE SPARTAKIAD OF THE PEOPLES OF THE USSR?

This is a nation-wide, all-round sports contest, whose finals resemble the Olympic Games in character and scope. And the same ceremony of awarding prizes to the victors takes place. They receive gold, silver or bronze medals. The anthem of the Republic of the winner is played, and its flag is hoisted on the mast. This is a contest of teams representing the Union Republics and those of Moscow and Leningrad. The final composition of each team is determined by multi-stage mass-scale competitions held throughout the country. The spartakiad's programme includes, as a rule, more than 20 sports.

The First Spartakiad of the Peoples of the USSR was held in 1956. At that time some 20 million people took part in the preliminary contests, and 1,800 of them reached Master's standard for the first time in their lives. Then the final games took place at the Moscow's Lenin Stadium, with 10,000 participants. The 1960 Rome Olympics drew only 5,902 contenders.

This First Spartakiad set 335 records of the different Republics, and several national, European and world records.

In the summer of 1959 the finals of the Second Spartakiad of the Peoples of the USSR took place at the Lenin Stadium in Moscow. In scope and results it far exceeded the first one, attracting about 40 million people to the preliminaries.

It has become the rule to hold nation-wide Spartakiads in pre-Olympic years, as a sort of dress rehearsal for a great international event. Every Union Republic and Moscow and Leningrad entered teams in 23 different events in the finals of the 1963 Spartakiad. A total of 66 million people

participated in the Third Spartakiad in the preliminaries. Six world, nine European and 35 national records were broken in the finals.

HOW ARE CHILDREN'S SPORTS PROMOTED?

Tens of millions of roubles are spent every year on the physical education of children. All pupils of general schools have physical culture lessons, while over 20 million school-children are members of various sports groups. Children receive sports gear free at sports centres, schools and camps. Expert trainers take them through their paces. In summer over 5.5 million pupils go to young pioneer camps where the emphasis is on sports. All expenses are paid by the Ministry of Education and the trade unions. Under a government decree in daytime all sports facilities and equipment are placed at the disposal of general and specialised schools free of charge.

Schoolchildren regularly participate in sports competitions and hikes. Very popular are such contests as «Golden Puck» (ice hockey), «Leather Ball» (football) and «Olympic Snowflake» (skating) in which competing teams may represent a town, a street or even one house. The USSR Children's Games, a yearly affair, are preceded by competitions in districts, regions and Republics. National youth championships in 66 sports are held each year. There are more than 2,200 children's sports schools in the country. Eight hundred and fifty thousand children get training there after school hours, under the guidance of their trainers.

WHAT IS THE ROLE OF STUDENT SPORT?

Sports are especially popular with students. Hundreds of student clubs have a membership of over 700,000 students. They are provided with sports gear free, have excellent sports facilities and experienced trainers. It is no wonder that most outstanding Soviet sportsmen are students. They take up sport during special hours provided in the curriculum of every college and specialised secondary school, and also train in their free time.

The main purpose of student sport is to capitalise on the skills acquired by the young men and women in school, and ensure good, all-round physical development. Almost all students, by the time they graduate, fulfil standards for the third, second and even first sports category, while the more gifted become Masters of Sport. Moreover, many acquire experience acting as instructors or referees in sports contests.

WHAT OPPORTUNITIES ARE THERE FOR MIDDLE-AGED AND OLDER PEOPLE TO HAVE SPORTS TRAINING?

Special groups are organised with their own TV and radio programme. Physical education and sports training in health groups is very popular among middle-aged and old people. Thousands of such groups are organised at sports clubs and near their places of residence. About four million go in for sports this way. This work is conducted in accordance with a scientific programme drawn-up with the help of eminent gerontology specialists.

IS SPORT POPULAR IN THE COUNTRYSIDE?

Village youngsters are as fond of sport as urban youngsters. Every village has its sports grounds and some even specially built stadiums. The young people participate in district, regional, republican and all-nation contests in various sporting events. They especially like skiing, track-and-field athletics, football, volleyball, wrestling and weight-lifting.

Rural physical culture is led by central councils of rural sports societies, which function in every Union Republic. These societies have a membership of more than 10 million.

The best sportsmen of the Soviet countryside also take part in international meets. Ardalion Ignatiev, for instance, a member of the rural sports society «Urozhaï» (Harvest), won the bronze medal in the 400 m sprint at the Melbourne Olympics.

DO BOATING FANS HAVE THEIR OWN YACHTS, MOTORBOATS AND ICE-BOATS?

Yes—and quite a lot of them. During contests, however, the sportsmen generally use boats belonging to their clubs.

CAN SPORTS GEAR BE HIRED?

Yes, at almost every large stadium, boat station, cycling track, mountaineer and tourist club, skiing station and skating rink. Members of sports clubs receive gear free, others pay a very small fee.

IS TOURISM POPULAR?

As in any country with a beautiful and varied landscape, tourism is very popular in the Soviet Union. Millions of people annually take part in tourist hikes, travels and excursions. In 1966 there were 5,000 tourist camps and 460 tourist bases in the USSR. The number of tourist gear hiring stations is growing fast and now exceeds 8,000. In summer some 400 special trains and 80 ships take tourists all over the country. This is a comparatively new form of tourism. Tourist trains usually run at night, and in daytime the passengers go sightseeing, swimming, sunbathing. «Tourism on wheels» is particularly popular with the rural population.

Every year the Central Council for Tourism offers more than 700 interesting routes on which the tourists are provided with food, shelter, guides and transportation.

IS MOUNTAIN-CLIMBING POPULAR?

Soviet mountain-climbing enthusiasts do not have to go to Switzerland to enjoy this sport. On the contrary with every passing year more and more mountaineers are coming to the USSR from other countries attracted by the Caucasus, the snowcovered peaks of the Pamirs, the difficult traverses of the Tien Shan Mountains and the crystal-pure air of the stern Altai.

30,000 people in the Soviet Union follow this manly sport, and 600 of them bear the title of Master of Sport. There are now 20 big camps for mountain-climbers belonging to the trade unions. Every year about 15,000 to 17,000 climbers spend their holidays in these camps. This is in addition to the many thousands of enthusiasts who travel in the mountains along their own routes.

Accommodation in such a camp costs 108 roubles, but the sportsman himself pays only one-third of this. The rest is covered by state social insurance fund. Furthermore, one-quarter of the accommodation is free. The state budget allocates 1.5 million roubles for this every year. Thanks to these appropriations, mountain-climbing, a sport requiring a lot of intricate gear and expense, has become accessible to the general public.

IS SKIN-DIVING A POPULAR SPORT?

Skin-diving, which began here in the thirties, has become especially popular in recent years. The Union of Sports Societies and Organisations has established the Master's title for skin-diving. The first to receive this title were Yuri Naumchev, a glass-blower from Moscow, and Alexander Tulk, a teacher from Tallinn.

Skin-diving gear may be acquired in the shops of Moscow, Leningrad, Kiev, Odessa, Sevastopol, Sochi, Yalta and elsewhere. About a dozen different masks and fins, and several sets of guns and aqualungs are produced in the USSR.

Though the USSR Skin-Divers' Federation is one of the youngest, its membership numbers nearly 200,000. Members get training under the control of doctors and specialists in strictly designated areas of rivers, lakes and seas.

DO MANY PEOPLE HUNT?

Hunting is one of the favourite sports among Soviet people. Some 1.5 million go in for it. Splendid hunting grounds are placed at their disposal. The grounds belonging to the Moscow Hunting Society alone cover more than 50,000 hectares.

How can one join the Hunters' Society?

He must be 18 years of age, know the hunting rules and be able to handle a gun. Then, after paying an initial fee of one rouble, three roubles membership dues for the year and one rouble for state revenue, he can take his gun and set off on a hunting trip. Each year hunters bring in 200,000 saigas, 3,000 boars, 40,000 elks, 40,000 roe deer and 20,000 Siberian goats.

HOW POPULAR IS ANGLING?

There are millions of fishing enthusiasts in the Soviet Union. Angling is allowed everywhere all year round without charge. In some regions large water reservoirs have been put at the disposal of anglers, commercial fishing being prohibited there. The Anglers' Society has a membership of more than two million. It has fishing lodges all over the country where its members can find shelter, receive a boat, fishing tackle, expert advice and, of course, the best of «fisherman's stories.»

DO SOVIET SPORTSMEN USE DRUGS?

Certainly not. Drugs are harmful to one's health and are absolutely prohibited by the rules of sports contests in the USSR.

WHAT IS DONE TO PROTECT A SPORTSMAN'S HEALTH?

Each Soviet sportsman is under the constant observation, free of charge, by the medical posts and centres at all big stadiums. Sportsmen at schools, colleges, factories and offices are looked after by doctors employed by these institutions, who decide whether a sportsman may take part in competitions.

HAS A SOVIET SPORTSMAN EVER BEEN BOUGHT?

Many a foreign sports manager has more than once thought of that, for there have been quite a number of Soviet sportsmen highly evaluated abroad, such as ice-hockey stars Vsevolod Bobrov and Veniamin Alexandrov, soccer star Igor Netto, Lev Yashin, long-distance runner Vladimir Kuts and many others. But there has not been a single case of «business» offers to join a foreign sports club producing any reaction from a Soviet sportsman other than an ironic smile.

WHAT INTERNATIONAL CONTACTS DO SOVIET SPORTSMEN HAVE?

Soviet sports organisations are members of 45 international associations and maintain contacts with sportsmen in more than 90 countries. Each year Soviet sportsmen participate in 45-50 international championships and tournaments. In 1966, for example, over 10,000 Soviet sportsmen took part in more than one thousand international meets held in the USSR and abroad.

Foreign Policy

WHAT IS THE GENERAL LINE OF SOVIET FOREIGN POLICY?

The aims of Soviet foreign policy, as defined by the 23rd Congress of the CPSU are to ensure the most favourable international conditions for building socialism and communism, to strengthen the unity of the socialist countries, to support the national liberation movements, to promote cooperation with the developing states, to consistently implement the principle of peaceful coexistence of states with different social systems and to resolutely oppose aggressive imperialist forces.

The first document of the Soviet Government adopted 50 years ago was the Decree on Peace which called for protecting the peoples from the horrors of imperialist wars.

Soviet peace policy stems from the very nature of the socialist system. Establishment of public ownership of the means of production and the disappearance of classes living off the fruits of the labour of others, transition of power into the hands of working people have removed the breeding ground of militarism and desire for conquest. Any

motives for altering boundaries, for acquiring new lands or for economic subordination of other countries are alien to the Soviet Union. The USSR is a vast construction site, and anyone engaged in building always strives to guard his house against fire. The chief purpose of Soviet foreign policy is to ensure peaceful conditions for building a new society.

DOES THE SOVIET UNION CONSIDER IT POSSIBLE TO PREVENT A WORLD THERMONUCLEAR WAR?

The Soviet Union has been consistently fighting to avert the menace of thermonuclear war for millions of human lives. At the present level of armaments based on nuclear weapons of colossal destructive power any military conflict may grow into a world war which would devastate a considerable part of our planet.

Since the world socialist system exerts an ever growing influence on the course of events in the world, since the forces of socialism, peace and democracy prevail over the forces of reaction and war there appears a real possibility of preventing a global war. Of paramount importance here is to secure a further shift of the balance of class forces on the world scene in favour of socialism, and this depends on the might of the anti-imperialist front, above all on the growth and strengthening of the world socialist system and the international liberation movement. Another important factor is the implementation of Lenin's principle of peaceful coexistence of states with different social systems.

WHAT DOES PEACEFUL COEXISTENCE AS ADVOCATED BY THE SOVIET UNION MEAN?

It means renunciation of war as a means of settling disputes arising between states and their settlement by negotiation, equality of states, understanding and trust, consideration for one another's interests, non-interference in the internal affairs of another state, recognition of every nation's right independently to settle all questions arising in that country; it means strict respect for the sovereignty and territorial integrity of every country; economic and

cultural cooperation on the basis of equality and mutual advantage.

These principles must form the basis of relations between the socialist and capitalist states and because their implementation will create all the conditions for preventing a world war. On the other hand peaceful coexistence is out of the question in matters of class controversy and national-liberation struggle. The principle of peaceful coexistence cannot be applied to relations between the oppressors and the oppressed, between the colonialists and their victims.

HOW CAN HISTORIC DISPUTES BETWEEN THE TWO OPPOSING WORLD SYSTEMS BE SETTLED?

By peaceful competition. Each system, in its economic, cultural and scientific development and in the matter of ensuring people the benefits of life, their rights and liberties, must prove in practice which of the two better meets people's interests and affords brighter vistas for all mankind. In other words, coexistence of social formations with different socio-political systems essentially is peaceful competition for showing which system is capable of organising society in the most rational and progressive way. In this competition, peaceful economy and progressive ideas will win without having to resort to arms and wars.

WHAT IS THE ESSENCE OF THE SOVIET PROPOSALS FOR GENERAL AND COMPLETE DISARMAMENT?

To secure the destruction of the means for waging war and primarily the means of mass annihilation. The crux of the Soviet disarmament programme is the banning and complete abolition of all nuclear weapons and all means of delivering them to the target.

Along with this programme the Soviet Union is also fighting for prompt measures to be taken to limit the nuclear arms drive, in particular, to stop the proliferation of nuclear weapons, to ban all kinds of nuclear tests completely, to set up nuclear-free zones in various parts of the

world, and to dismantle military bases on foreign territories in order to make further steps towards general and complete disarmament.

DOES THE SOVIET UNION FAVOUR CONTROL OVER DISARMAMENT?

The Soviet Union stands for control over disarmament, and not control over armaments. That is where its position fundamentally differs from that of the Western countries in the disarmament talks. All the projects of the Western Powers lay stress on establishing control over remaining arms. In essence, that means reconnoitring the balance of forces in each stage, prompted by a desire to await a suitable moment for attack, rather than seriously to set about disarming.

In the Soviet draft treaty for general and complete disarmament, each step in the elimination of a particular type of arms is accompanied by measures of strict international control. The Soviet Government has pointed out time and again that, if the Western Powers accept the Soviet proposals for general and complete disarmament, it will accept any measures of control that they may propose.

WHAT IS THE SOVIET ATTITUDE TOWARDS THE USE OF WEAPONS OF MASS DESTRUCTION?

The USSR is absolutely against it. We hold that the very possibility should be ruled out. The Western Powers have repeatedly been asked to conclude a pact renouncing the use of nuclear weapons.

Those who speak of «running the risk of a thermonuclear war,» who make a sort of cult of such a war and even talk of «rules» for waging nuclear war, commit a crime against humanity. The Soviet people say an end should be put to the nuclear arms race, and the weapons themselves should be banned and destroyed.

WHAT IS THE SOVIET ATTITUDE TOWARDS USING OUTER SPACE FOR MILITARY PURPOSES?

The Soviet Union considers that outer space should not be used as a military sphere. At the 21st session of the UN General Assembly in 1966 the USSR was one of the initiators of a resolution approving a treaty on the principles of the actions of states in space research. The treaty, signed in January 1967, stipulates that the Moon and other celestial bodies must be used exclusively for peaceful purposes and prohibits placing into terrestrial orbit any objects with nuclear weapons or any other weapons of mass destruction.

WHAT IS THE SOVIET UNION'S ATTITUDE TO ENSURING THE SECURITY OF NON-NUCLEAR COUNTRIES AND THE PROPOSALS OF ATOM-FREE ZONES?

The USSR regards this matter as part of the struggle for stopping the nuclear arms drive and preventing a world thermonuclear war. While proposing a draft treaty on non-proliferation of nuclear weapons the USSR suggested that the nuclear powers signatories pledge not to use nuclear weapons against the non-nuclear signatories. The Soviet Union also supports in every way the plans of setting up nuclear-free zones in various parts of the world which provide, among other things, for eliminating military bases on foreign territories or any other methods of stationing nuclear weapons.

WHY DOES THE USSR OPPOSE MILITARY BASES ON FOREIGN TERRITORIES?

Because they are a means of preparing an aggressive war; they aggravate international tension and serve as starting points for imperialist interference in the affairs of the developing countries and for suppressing the national-liberation movements. Besides this, they poison relations between the Soviet Union and countries allowing military bases

on their territory. The governments of such countries do their people a disservice, as territories on which such bases are located become potential targets for nuclear retaliation.

The Soviet Union has repeatedly demanded, at the United Nations and other international forums, the removal of all military bases from foreign soil. The Soviet draft treaty for general and complete disarmament provides for dismantling such bases in the first stage of disarmament.

IS WAR PROPAGANDA PERMITTED IN THE USSR?

A law passed by the Supreme Soviet of the USSR on March 12, 1951, made war propaganda a serious offence. The Soviet Government has repeatedly called for a ban on war propaganda, believing that the «position of strength» policy, ideas of a «potential preventive war,» evoke grave danger, and threaten humanity with thermonuclear war.

WHAT IS THE SOVIET ATTITUDE TOWARDS THE EXPORT OF REVOLUTION?

Revolutions cannot be exported. Any change in a country's internal system is the affair solely of the people of that country. If conditions for social revolution have matured, the old order will sooner or later have to make way for a new and more progressive order, but without outside instigation.

WHAT DOES THE USSR MEAN WHEN SPEAKING OF THE EXPORT OF COUNTER-REVOLUTION?

Interference in any way in the internal affairs of another country to hinder progressive changes or to help restore old regimes already rejected by the people. The export of counter-revolution may be effected by subversive activity, by provoking rebellion by counter-revolutionary elements, by infiltration of imperialist agents (as in the case of Hungary in 1956), or by abetting the armed invasion of counter-revolutionary detachments (as in the case of Cuba in 1961), or, lastly, by open military intervention (as in the case

of Soviet Russia from 1918 to 1922, Spain from 1936 to 1939 and the Dominican Republic in 1965).

Export of counter-revolution is, of course, the grossest form of interference in the internal affairs of another state, and is incompatible with the elementary norms of international law. Today, any attempt to export counter-revolution can bring about war conflict.

The sinister consequences of the policy of interference in the affairs of other nations can be clearly seen from the aggressive actions of the United States in Vietnam. The 1954 Geneva Agreements confirmed the sovereign right of the Vietnamese people to decide their own fate. But this right was rudely denied by a power which used all means of destruction and extermination and a 500-thousand-strong army to force its will on Vietnam. It is the sacred right of the victim of aggression and interference to fight for its liberation, for the implementation of its sovereign rights. Such is the position of the National-Liberation Front of South Vietnam and of the Democratic Republic of Vietnam. They proceed from the basic provisions of the 1954 Geneva Agreements—all foreign troops must be withdrawn from Vietnam and all interference in the internal affairs of the Vietnamese people must be stopped.

From the very beginning the Soviet Union has maintained an irreconcilable attitude to aggressive US actions in Vietnam. Soviet people voice their firm solidarity with the South Vietnamese patriots fighting for their country's independence.

In view of the aggressive actions of the United States against the Democratic Republic of Vietnam (North Vietnam) the Soviet Union and other socialist countries have been giving the DRV material and military assistance in accordance with its Government's request.

WHAT IS THE SOVIET ATTITUDE TO THE NATIONAL-LIBERATION MOVEMENT?

The USSR vigorously and consistently upholds the right of peoples to fight for their freedom and independence.

While it is opposed to predatory wars, wars of aggression and to the export of revolution or counter-revolution, the Soviet Union recognises the legality and even the ne-

cessity of defensive wars and wars of national liberation, since imperialist aggression, colonialism are a gross encroachment on the rights of peoples.

The Soviet Union has supported and will continue to support the national-liberation struggle which it considers a just struggle.

Certain people have been trying to pose this false alternative—either support for the liberation struggle of nations or a policy of peaceful coexistence of states with different social systems. But there is no such dilemma in actual life.

The policy of peaceful coexistence, far from precluding, presupposes resistance to aggression and support of nations fighting for their freedom and independence. There can be no stable peace on earth if the sovereign rights of each nation are not respected.

There never has been, nor could there be, a single case of the USSR failing to extend fraternal assistance to peoples fighting for freedom. One only has to recall the stand taken by the USSR at such times as the Anglo-French-Israeli attack on Egypt (1956), the preparation of intervention against Iraq (1957), the plans to invade the Lebanon (1958), the danger threatened the Cuban people's victorious revolution (1961-62) and USA aggression in Vietnam to make sure that the Soviet Union will use all of its prestige and take the most decisive measures to frustrate any plans designed to wreck the national-liberation movement.

The Soviet people offer their firm solidarity to the heroic Vietnamese people who are the victims of open aggression of US imperialism.

Leninist policy of supporting the just, anti-imperialist struggle of the peoples of Asia, Africa and Latin America was and remains the cornerstone of Soviet foreign policy. The Soviet Government submitted for consideration to the 15th session of the UN General Assembly a draft declaration on the granting of independence to all colonies and dependent peoples. At subsequent sessions of the General Assembly the Soviet Union raised the question of the declaration's implementation and supported all proposals and steps to fight colonialism and racism.

WHAT IS SOVIET POLICY WITH REGARD TO DEVELOPING COUNTRIES OF ASIA, AFRICA AND LATIN AMERICA?

The USSR helps the peoples of the young states to develop their own economy and advance their culture, to get on their own feet and occupy a place of importance in international affairs. The Soviet Union advocates giving these countries all-round economic aid on terms that will not undermine their sovereignty, but will help to consolidate their economic and political independence. That is the principle underlying the economic and technical assistance the Soviet Union renders to Asian, African and Latin American countries.

The Soviet Union also favours extensive international cooperation for giving economic aid to developing countries through international organisations. Especially favourable conditions for rendering such aid would, in the Soviet Union's opinion, arise if general and complete disarmament were implemented. Disarmament would permit the highly developed countries to offer the young states a good part of the funds now going for military purposes.

At the same time the Soviet Union is doing everything to protect the developing countries from the encroachment of old and new colonialists. It is persistently fighting for withdrawing foreign military bases from these countries, for the implementation of the principle of non-interference in the internal affairs of other states.

The USSR holds that the developing countries will be able considerably to strengthen their independence and to prevent the imperialists from interfering in their affairs if they base their relations with one another on the principles of refraining from using force in settling controversial issues and preventing interstate conflicts and solidarity in eradicating the remnants of colonialism and racism. That is why the Soviet Union wishes every success to organisations like the Organisation of African Unity (OAU). This was also the motive behind the Soviet Union's proposal of good offices to India and Pakistan to end the military conflict between the two countries in 1966 (Tashkent Declaration of January 10, 1966).

HOW DOES THE USSR REGARD THE POLICY OF NEUTRALITY AND NON-ALIGNMENT?

It regards it as a factor conducive to strengthening the peace forces. It encourages in every way the policy of neutrality pursued by those Western and newly liberated Eastern states which do not want to be involved in military blocs and are sincerely striving for peace. The Soviet Union has helped in every possible way to enable Austria in the West and Laos in the East to become neutral states, since it meant an extension of the peace zone and a contraction of the sphere of operations of aggressive military blocs.

WHAT IS THE SOVIET UNION'S ATTITUDE TO MILITARY BLOCS?

The USSR regards military blocs formed by the Western Powers during the «cold war» as a tool of reactionary foreign politics aimed at changing the course of history and stopping the onward march of the nations. The North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO) is also employed by the West German militarists and revanchists in their plans of revising the results of the Second World War. Other blocs—CENTO and SEATO—managed to enlist the membership of some developing countries, the result being that the latter cannot direct all their efforts and funds to fight economic backwardness, poverty and ignorance, while their territories are used for preparing aggression against peaceful states, for imperialist interference in the affairs of other nations and fighting the national-liberation movements.

That is why the attitude of the Soviet Union to military blocs is definitely negative and it has always stood for their liquidation.

HOW DOES THE USSR BUILD ITS RELATIONS WITH ITS NEIGHBOURS?

Good-neighbourly policy and peaceful relations are the guiding principles in Soviet relations with states which have a common boundary with us. Of course, that does not

depend entirely on one side. The other side, too, must be guided by the same principles. Relations existing today between the Soviet Union and Finland and Afghanistan can serve as examples. These countries have refused to be drawn into alignments hostile to the Soviet Union. In fact, they have signed friendship treaties with the USSR (the Soviet-Afghan Treaty of Friendship concluded 45 years ago, and the Soviet-Finnish Treaty of Friendship and Mutual Assistance signed 18 years ago). They have been developing close economic, trade and cultural relations with the USSR. The Soviet Union respects their territorial integrity and sovereignty and, being a good neighbour, gives them every assistance it can. For example, it concluded an agreement with Finland leasing her part of the Saimaa Canal, which lies on Soviet territory. In Afghanistan, many industrial enterprises and cultural establishments have been built with Soviet assistance.

Of late, much of what has hindered normal relations between the USSR and Iran is becoming a thing of the past. The Iranian Government's undertaking not to grant any foreign state the right to set up missile bases on Iranian territory, and not to permit Iran to become a spring-board for aggression against the Soviet Union has been duly appreciated in the USSR.

The active economic and cultural contacts between the two countries further promote their relations.

The Soviet Union is doing all it can to build good relations with its neighbours, Turkey and Japan, and it hopes that they will shake off the influence of groups hindering them from becoming really good neighbours, and thus serve the interests of all countries and of world peace.

WHAT ARE THE PRINCIPLES ON WHICH THE USSR BUILDS ITS RELATIONS WITH THE SOCIALIST COUNTRIES?

Principles of comradeship, friendship, equality, non-interference, international solidarity and fraternal cooperation. The relations between the Soviet Union and the socialist countries are international relations of a new type. The socialist countries' common foreign policy aims stem from their common social system and home policy. In

the community of socialist states, mutual assistance means steady progress for all and the strengthening of each socialist country individually and the socialist camp as a whole.

Treaties of friendship, cooperation and mutual assistance are important means of promoting closer relations between the Soviet Union and other socialist countries. No less important are business contacts and political consultations of the leaders of the fraternal parties of these countries.

WHAT IS THE PURPOSE OF THE USSR'S MEMBERSHIP IN THE WARSAW TREATY ORGANISATION?

The Soviet Union has repeatedly proposed to the Western powers to set up jointly an all-European system of collective security in place of the exclusive military blocs, but the proposal has fallen on deaf ears. In 1949 the Western powers launched NATO. The stepping-up of the activity of the Atlantic bloc, the blatant military preparations, establishment of a single command over the armed forces, organisation of joint military exercises, coordination of efforts for improving armaments, rearming of West Germany and other measures have clearly shown that NATO is spearheaded against the socialist countries.

Obviously, the Soviet Union and the other socialist countries had to take counter-measures, and in 1955 the Warsaw Treaty came into being. This treaty is entirely defensive, and any country may become a signatory. It contains a provision that should an all-European system of collective security be set up, the treaty will become invalid.

WHAT IS THE SOVIET VIEW ON WAYS TO ENSURE EUROPEAN SECURITY?

The collective will of the European socialist countries was set forth in the Declaration of the Warsaw Treaty countries made in July 1966. Their proposals proceed from the following principles: refusal to threaten with or use force, equal cooperation of countries with different social systems and adherence to the policy of peaceful coexistence. The basic conditions to be fulfilled are the inviolability of European borders and states and prevention of the Fede-

ral Republic of Germany from getting access to nuclear weapons.

The programme of measures to strengthen European security includes:

convocation of an all-European conference that could lead to the signing of an all-European declaration on cooperation in the interests of maintaining and consolidating European security. The Warsaw Treaty countries are also prepared to use other available methods of consolidating European security either on a bilateral or multilateral basis;

promotion in every way of good-neighbourly relations, economic, scientific and cultural contacts and, finally, political ties among countries with different social systems;

simultaneous disbanding of the existing military alliances or liquidation of the military organisations of both the North Atlantic Pact and the Warsaw Treaty.

Partial measures to ensure European security include: dismantling of foreign military bases;

withdrawal of all troops from foreign territories inside their national borders;

reduction of the armed forces of the two German states, the extent and time limits to be mutually agreed;

formation of nuclear-free zones and obligation of powers in possession of nuclear weapons not to use them against member countries of such zones;

discontinuance of the flights of foreign planes carrying atomic and hydrogen bombs over the territories of European states and the calling of foreign surface and subsurface vessels with nuclear weapons at the ports of such states.

WHAT DOES THE USSR PROPOSE FOR SOLVING THE GERMAN QUESTION?

There are now two German states in the centre of Europe. One is the peace-loving socialist German Democratic Republic. The other is the Federal Republic of Germany. Revenge-seeking aspirations of certain quarters in West Germany are increasingly incited by the Atlantic bloc, making her a dangerous hotbed for possible conflict.

In trying to find ways of reaching a German settlement account should be taken of the security interests of all Euro-

pean countries; the existence of two German states should be recognised, the existing borders should be regarded as inviolable and both German states should reject the use of nuclear weapons.

WITH WHAT COUNTRIES HAS THE USSR ESTABLISHED DIPLOMATIC RELATIONS?

As of June 1967 the USSR had diplomatic relations with 99 countries including Albania, the Algerian People's Democratic Republic, Afghanistan, Argentina, Australia, Austria, Belgium, Bolivia, Brazil, Bulgaria, Burma, Burundi, Cambodia, the Cameroons, Canada, Central African Republic, Ceylon, Chad, the People's Republic of China, the Congo (Brazzaville), the Congo (Kinshasa), Costa Rica, Cuba, Cyprus, Czechoslovakia, Dahomey, the Democratic Republic of Vietnam, Denmark, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Ethiopia, Finland, France, the German Democratic Republic, the Federal Republic of Germany, Ghana, Great Britain, Greece, Guatemala, Guinea, Hungary, Iceland, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Italy, Ivory Coast, Israel¹, Japan, Jordan, Kenya, the Korean People's Democratic Republic, Kuwait, Laos, Lebanon, Liberia, Libya, Luxemburg, Mali, the Maldives, Mauritania, Mexico, Mongolian People's Republic, Morocco, Nepal, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Nigeria, Norway, Pakistan, Poland, Rumania, Ruanda, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Somali, Sudan, Sweden, Switzerland, the Syrian Arab Republic, Tanganyika and Zanzibar (Tanzania), Thailand, Togoland, Tunisia, Turkey, Uganda, the United Arab Republic, the United States of America, Upper Volta, Uruguay, the Kingdom of Urundi, the Yemeni Arab Republic, Yugoslavia.

WHAT INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATIONS DOES THE USSR BELONG TO?

It participates in at least 300 organisations—interstate,

¹ Diplomatic relations between the Soviet Union and Israel were severed in June 1967 because of the Israeli aggression against the Arab countries.

scientific, economic, social, etc. Of the interstate organisations (including organisations on economic and technical cooperation) to which the USSR belongs (there are about 50 of them) special mention should be made of the United Nations and its agencies: the International Court, the Trusteeship Council, the Economic and Social Council, the UN Economic Committee for Asia and the Far East, and the Economic Committee for Europe and the UN Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO); there are also the Warsaw Treaty Organisation, the Council for Mutual Economic Assistance, the International Labour Organisation, the International Committee for Observation and Control in Indo-China, the International Atomic Energy Agency, the International Red Cross Committee, the Universal Postal Union, the Permanent Court of Arbitration.

The Soviet Union is represented on the World Peace Council, in the Women's International Democratic Federation and other important world bodies.

HOW DOES THE USSR VIEW ITS ROLE IN THE UN?

The USSR seeks to make the United Nations an effective instrument of peace and peaceful coexistence. The Soviet Union is a founder state of the United Nations and a permanent member of the Security Council.

Since it began its activity in the United Nations, the Soviet Union has repeatedly made proposals for disarmament and the banning of nuclear weapons. The historic resolutions adopted by the General Assembly on Soviet initiative, in particular on general and complete disarmament (passed by the 14th session) and the declarations on independence for the colonies and dependent peoples (passed by the 15th session) and on non-interference in the internal affairs of other states (20th session) are unquestionably the UN's greatest accomplishments. From the United Nations rostrum the Soviet Union defends the interests of all peoples fighting for independence.

The Soviet Union has invariably opposed attempts to use the United Nations to impose the will of certain countries on others through the «voting machine.» The unanimous

vote rule by the permanent members of the Security Council is an important means for ensuring concerted action for safeguarding peace.

WHAT IS THE LENIN PEACE PRIZE?

These prizes have been instituted by the Soviet Union in honour of Vladimir Lenin (1870-1924), founder of the Soviet state and initiator of its peaceful foreign policy. They are awarded annually by a committee consisting of outstanding public figures in the Soviet Union and abroad. Awards are made to people who have made a particularly notable contribution to the promotion of peace and understanding among peoples, to the struggle for the triumph of the principles of peaceful coexistence between states with differing social systems.

Six prizes of 10,000 roubles each are awarded annually.

Foreign Economic Relations

WHY IS FOREIGN TRADE A STATE MONOPOLY IN THE USSR?

In the Soviet Union, the land, its mineral wealth, forests, factories, transport, means of communication, the basic means of production belong to the whole people. They are state property. Therefore, through the medium of the state, society as a whole disposes of material means both within the USSR and in the sphere of foreign trade. By the decree On the Nationalisation of Foreign Trade, passed on April 22, 1918, the Soviet Government established a state monopoly over foreign trade. Trade transactions with foreign states and individual trading enterprises are concluded on behalf of the Soviet Government by specially authorised organisations. The foreign trade monopoly covers currency, transport and insurance operations. The state exercises its monopoly through the Ministry of Foreign Trade and foreign trade organisations.

Abroad, the USSR exercises its rights in this field through its foreign trade missions. In countries where the Soviet Union has no such missions, its diplomatic missions include either commercial counsellors or commercial attaches.

WHAT ARE SOVIET FOREIGN TRADE ORGANISATIONS?

They are independent economic associations which handle the export and import of commodities, sell and buy licences and deal with publishing abroad, transportation of goods, external parcel-post operations and other matters. These associations have working capital and enjoy legal rights of a juridical person. They bear full responsibility for the transactions concluded by them, within the limits of their property, from which a debt can be recovered. Each has its own set of rules and exercises state monopoly over the import or export of the designated group of commodities. This excludes parallel transactions, antagonism and competition among Soviet foreign trade associations in the foreign market.

Most of the foreign trade associations, over 20 in all, are under the USSR Ministry of Foreign Trade. Some of them which deal with the delivery of complete sets of equipment and plant and technical assistance to other countries are subordinated to the Committee for Foreign Economic Relations of the USSR Council of Ministers. The foreign trade association *Soyuzkoopvneshtorg* is run by the USSR Union of Consumers' Cooperatives, while the *Sovfrakht* is under the USSR Ministry of Merchant Marine.

WHAT IS THE VOLUME OF SOVIET TRADE?

In terms of cost, in 1966 it totalled 15,000 million roubles (7,800 million roubles in 1958, 485 million roubles in 1940). This is approximately a twenty-fifth of the entire world trade turnover. The volume of Soviet trade is increasing along with the growth of output in the USSR and the rise of new possibilities and requirements of the entire socialist national economy. Before the Second World War the foreign trade turnover in the Soviet Union ranked only sixteenth in the world.

At present, the Soviet Union occupies fifth place after the USA, Britain, the Federal Republic of Germany and France.

WITH WHAT COUNTRIES DOES THE USSR HAVE TRADE RELATIONS?

With 100 countries. The USSR has signed trade agreements or treaties with over 70 of them, including Austria, the Algerian People's Democratic Republic, Afghanistan, Belgium, Brazil, Bulgaria, Burma, Great Britain, Hungary, Ghana, Guinea, the German Democratic Republic, Greece, Dahomey, Denmark, the Democratic Republic of Vietnam, India, Indonesia, Iraq, Iran, Iceland, Italy, Yemen, Cambodia, the Cameroons, Canada, Cyprus, the Korean People's Democratic Republic, the Chinese People's Republic, Cuba, Laos, Lebanon, Libya, Luxemburg, Mali, Morocco, the Mongolian People's Republic, Nigeria, the Netherlands, Norway, Pakistan, Poland, Rumania, Senegal, Syria, Somali, Sudan, the United Arab Republic, the United Republic of Tanzania, Togo, Tunisia, Turkey, Uruguay, Finland, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, Ceylon, Czechoslovakia, Switzerland, Sweden, Ethiopia, Yugoslavia, Japan, etc.

WHAT ARE THE POLITICAL CONDITIONS IN SOVIET TRADE AGREEMENTS?

In foreign trade Soviet policy is based on respect for the sovereignty and non-interference in the internal affairs of other countries, and therefore does not attach any political conditions to the signing of agreements. Adhering to the principles of peaceful coexistence, the Soviet Union regards trade as a sound basis for promoting all other forms of cooperation and strengthening mutual trust. Therefore, without attaching any political strings, the USSR strives to develop trade relations with all countries, regardless of their state and political system—providing, of course, there is mutual interest in such trade.

WHAT IS THE USSR PROPOSING TO NORMALISE INTERNATIONAL ECONOMIC RELATIONS?

First and foremost, rejection of the practice of trade discrimination and cessation of economic aggression (blockades, boycotts and embargoes), which some states are

implementing. Furthermore, the Soviet Union considers that the normal process of world trade is being disorganised by the setting up of closed monopoly groupings of the Common Market type.

The Soviet Union is advocating the utmost promotion of international trade on principles of equality and mutual advantage, which have to be observed in equal measure by countries with different political systems and by countries at different level of development.

The USSR was the initiator of the International Trade and Development Conference, within the framework of the UN, which was held in Geneva in the spring of 1964. The Conference, which was attended by delegates from about 120 countries, adopted a number of important resolutions aimed at normalising international economic relations and the development of world trade without discrimination.

WHAT IS THE PATTERN OF SOVIET EXPORT TRADE?

Thousands of items are involved in the foreign trade of the Soviet Union. About 65 per cent of Soviet exports are finished goods. Over 3,500 types of machines, equipment and means of transport are exported to more than 50 countries.

In 1965, the USSR exported, among other items, 5,500 metal-cutting machines, 21,900 tractors, and 15,100 lorries, 48,600 cars, 6,500 harvester combines, as well as 500 million worth of complete sets of equipment for industrial enterprises. Aircraft (including helicopters), diamonds, clocks and watches, radioactive isotopes and products of the optical and instrument-making industries constitute an ever increasing share of Soviet exports.

Various raw and other materials are being exported in increasing quantities. In 1965 the Soviet Union exported more than 64 million tons of oil and oil products, over 4.5 million tons of ferrous rolled stock, more than 24 million tons of iron ore, 1,000,000 tons of manganese ore and nearly 19 million cubic metres of timber.

One-fifth of Soviet exports are machines and equipment. Fuel and electricity account for 17-18 per cent, ores, metals and metal goods, cables and wire—21-22 per cent,

chemicals, fertilisers and rubber—3-4 per cent, timber, pulp and paper—7-8 per cent, textile raw materials and semi-finished goods—5-6 per cent, foodstuffs—7-8 per cent and manufactured consumer goods—3 per cent.

WHAT IS THE PATTERN OF SOVIET IMPORT TRADE?

About 35 per cent of imports consist of machines and equipment. Fuel, raw and other materials account for about a third, foodstuffs for about 20 per cent and consumer goods up to 14-15 per cent of imports.

The Soviet Union imports machine tools, machines, instruments, complete sets of equipment for the chemical, cement, light, food and pulp-and-paper industries and also some kinds of raw materials, ferrous rolled stock, pipes, natural rubber, wool and other items.

Footwear, fabrics, ready-made clothes, furniture, rice, fresh vegetables and fruit, tea, lemons, oranges and bananas are imported to satisfy the growing requirements of the population.

The steadily developing national economy, the building of new industrial enterprises and the rise in living standards are creating favourable conditions for expanding trade and importing an ever larger assortment of goods.

WHAT COUNTRIES COMPRISE THE WORLD SOCIALIST MARKET?

European and Asian countries which have taken the socialist road and are carrying on an economic exchange among themselves to strengthen and develop the new society. Of exceptional importance for trade among them is that in all these countries the economy is founded on public ownership of the means of production, and is developing in accordance with a scientific plan. That excludes competition, non-equitable exchanges and the exploitation of one country by others. Trade is based on the principle of equality, mutual advantage and comradely cooperation and mutual assistance. At present the share of the socialist countries in the foreign trade turnover is 70 per cent.

WHAT IS THE SOCIALIST COUNTRIES SHARE OF WORLD INDUSTRIAL OUTPUT?

The socialist countries have 26 per cent of the world's territory and 35 per cent of the population.

In 1966 the distribution of the world industrial output was the following: 38 per cent—the socialist countries (nearly 20 per cent the USSR), 7 per cent—the developing countries and 55 per cent—the advanced capitalist countries.

The share of the socialist countries grew as follows: less than 3 per cent in 1917, about 10 per cent in 1937, 20 per cent in 1950, 27 per cent in 1955 and 38 per cent in 1966.

The reason for the constant increase of the share of the socialist countries in world industrial output is the higher rates of production in a number of industries as compared to the capitalist countries.

In 1966 the socialist countries turned out 10 times more goods than was produced on the same territory in 1937, while the corresponding increase in the capitalist world was only 3.7 times. The average annual rate of growth in 1951-65 was 11.5 per cent in the socialist countries and 5.3 per cent in the capitalist states. Industrial output in the socialist countries grew by 410 per cent in that period and only by 120 per cent in the advanced capitalist countries.

WHAT DOES INTERNATIONAL SOCIALIST DIVISION OF LABOUR MEAN?

It means cooperation among the socialist states for the most efficient development of productive forces through fullest use of resources of each individual country and the socialist countries as a whole.

International socialist division of labour is implemented through coordination of economic development plans. This allows each country to concentrate efforts and material resources on producing commodities most appropriate to domestic needs and those of the entire socialist community, while relying on the efforts of the other countries in other economic fields.

Socialist international division of labour is carried out in a conscious and planned manner; it combines the national interests of each country with the interests of the entire socialist system. Based on equality, friendship and mutual assistance, it helps the industrially less developed countries to catch up with the advanced states.

WHAT IS THE COUNCIL FOR MUTUAL ECONOMIC AID (CMEA)?

As is stated in its Charter, CMEA's purpose is «to promote through the united and coordinated efforts of all member countries planned development of national economy, to accelerate economic and technical progress in these countries, to raise the level of industrialisation of the less developed countries, and to further the steady growth of labour productivity and the continuous rise of the living standards.»

The economic, scientific and technical cooperation of the CMEA member countries is based on the principles of complete equality, respect for one another's sovereignty and national interests, mutual benefit and friendly assistance.

The sovereign equality of the CMEA member states is guaranteed by the rule that all recommendations and decisions are adopted only with the consent of all countries concerned, and the equal rights and obligations of the member countries in their relations with the Council and among each other.

Although the financial contribution to the activities of the Council is not equal for all countries, none of them enjoys any privileges; each country has the same number of representatives in CMEA and the same rights as others in all CMEA bodies.

The decisions are adopted only with the consent of the member countries concerned and are implemented in these countries only by decision of their governments or other authorised state bodies.

CMEA does not discriminate in any way against third countries. Unlike the Common Market, it seeks no privileges or advantages at the expense of countries that are not its members. The CMEA countries have no agreements

granting them customs preferences or any other privileges over other countries.

CMEA membership in no way affects the member countries' rights and obligations as participants in other international organisations or signatories to other international agreements.

The principles underlying CMEA activity and laid down in its Charter are in keeping with the principles of the UN Charter.

WHO ARE CMEA MEMBERS AND HOW IS IT ORGANISED?

The Council for Mutual Economic Aid was formed in January 1949 and joined by Albania, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, the German Democratic Republic, Hungary, the Mongolian People's Republic, Poland, Rumania and the USSR.

CMEA is an open organisation. Any country accepting its aims and principles and ready to abide by its Charter may join it.

Under the CMEA Charter, non-member countries may take part in the work of its bodies on conditions mutually agreed upon. For several years representatives of socialist countries that are not members of CMEA have been participating in the work of its different agencies.

The CMEA Charter has no reservations restricting any form of cooperation between CMEA and other interested countries.

The supreme authority in CMEA is the session held once a year in one of the capitals of its member countries. Its executive body is the CMEA Executive Committee composed of vice-premiers of the member states. Other agencies are the CMEA Secretariat, the International Bank for Economic Cooperation, the Bureau for Coordination of Economic Plans, the Shipping Freight Bureau and standing committees (on electric power, iron and steel, coordination of research, transportation, etc.) which study the ways of most rational development of a given sector of economy and prepare recommendations on economic relations, specialisation and cooperation of production.

WHAT ECONOMIC PROGRESS ARE CMEA COUNTRIES MAKING?

Here are some figures showing industrial growth in the CMEA countries:

	Before the war	1950	1965
Steel (million tons)	23.7	35.8	120.2
Electricity (thousand million kwh)	60.7	135.3	677.1
Coal (million tons)	229.9	406.1	841.1
Oil (million tons)	35.4	43.8	259.2
Cement (million tons)	10.8	18.6	104.7
Cotton textiles (million square metres)	3,750	4,280	8,440
Leather footwear (million pairs)	—	307.1	765.2

In 1950 the CMEA countries had reached the world average level of per capita industrial output, while in 1965 this level was raised by 200 per cent.

In 1966-70 the CMEA countries will increase their industrial output by about 50 per cent.

The volume of trade among the CMEA countries grew nearly fivefold between 1951 and 1965, while their trade with the non-socialist world in 1965 was more than four times, and with the developing countries, over 7.5 times greater than in 1950.

The CMEA countries give economic and technical assistance to more than 40 countries in Asia, Africa and Latin America in the construction of 1,500 projects, for the most part in the heavy industry.

WHAT JOINT PROJECTS IS THE USSR ENGAGED IN WITH OTHER SOCIALIST COUNTRIES?

Of the 1,400 industrial enterprises and other projects that are being built with Soviet assistance in socialist countries 780 were completed and put into operation by 1966.

Among well-known joint projects of socialist countries is the 4,500 km Friendship Oil Pipeline from the Soviet Union to Poland, the German Democratic Republic, Czechoslovakia and Hungary. It is one of the world's longest oil pipelines supplying Soviet oil at minimum cost to some of the other socialist countries. The 1965 deliveries of Soviet oil through the Friendship Pipeline were in excess of 15 million tons.

Another example is the building in Poland of the Turshuv power plant. The 200,000 kw turbines were built in the Soviet Union. In 1965 the power station reached its rated capacity—1.4 million kilowatt—as much as all power stations of Poland generated in 1939.

Among other projects commissioned in 1965 with Soviet aid were a big blast furnace at the Kremikovtsi metallurgical plant and a gas pipeline from the Chirensk deposit in Bulgaria, an alumina plant in Rumania, the Darkhan power station in the Mongolian People's Republic.

The total capacity of projects completed or under construction with Soviet aid is 17.2 million tons of iron a year, 24 million tons of steel, 28.4 million tons of rolled stock and 23.8 million tons of processed oil; the capacity of power stations will increase by 24.6 million kw.

WHAT ARE THE ADVANTAGES OF A SINGLE POWER GRID IN THE SOCIALIST COUNTRIES?

The amalgamation of power transmission lines and power stations of the European socialist countries into a single system, called the Peace Grid, allows the capacities of the operating power stations to be used most effectively, to satisfy power requirements more fully, particularly during «rush» hours, and to reduce the construction of reserve capacities. This yields a considerable saving. In 1965 six thousand million kwh was transmitted through the Peace Grid. We may mention for comparison that the total production of electricity in Hungary was 11,200 million kwh. The united grid links the power systems of Poland, the German Democratic Republic, Czechoslovakia, Hungary and of the West Ukraine and north-west regions of the Soviet Union. The control centre is in Prague.

WHAT ARE THE TRENDS AND PROSPECTS OF ECONOMIC COOPERATION AMONG THE CMEA COUNTRIES?

The basic features of economic development of the CMEA countries are high and stable rates of economic growth, closer cooperation and coordination of economic plans and reciprocal exchange of experience.

Of great importance is further specialisation and cooperation of production of the CMEA countries. The purpose is to reduce to a minimum the variety of products manufactured in each country in order to organise mass production of a comparatively limited range of goods to meet the needs of all the member countries.

In 1958-65 the CMEA countries accepted recommendations on specialisation in 36 important sectors of machine building which cover about 1,800 machine-building products and thousands of items in other industries. The manufacture of equipment for blast furnaces is concentrated in the USSR, Poland and Czechoslovakia, for the coal industry—in the USSR, the German Democratic Republic, Poland and Czechoslovakia, for the aluminium industry—in the USSR and Hungary, for the footwear industry—in Czechoslovakia alone.

The CMEA countries cooperate both on a bilateral and a multilateral basis. In 1964 Hungary, Poland and Czechoslovakia formed the international organisation *Intermetal* for cooperation in metallurgy. Bulgaria, the German Democratic Republic and the Soviet Union joined it later. Bulgaria and Hungary have organised the joint societies *Agromash*—for mechanising vegetable growing and viticulture and *Itransmash*—for joint production of factory transport facilities.

1964 saw the formation of other international production and economic organisations and a pool of 100,000 railway wagons.

Lately the Soviet Union and other CMEA members have been working on joint preparation and coordination of economic plans for 1966-70. Draft plans are coordinated both on a bilateral basis (between the national planning agencies) and a multilateral basis (through CMEA and its agencies).

The volume of trade between the CMEA countries in 1961-65 was nearly 99,000 million roubles. Under the new agreements the volume of trade will grow by 40-50 per cent in 1966-70 and reach 140,000 million roubles. This is the first time when a group of countries have planned mutual deliveries on such a scale for a period of five years.

WHAT ARE THE PRINCIPLES REGARDING COORDINATION OF THE ECONOMIC PLANS OF THE CMEA COUNTRIES?

Voluntary coordination of economic plans is a new form of international economic relations brought to life by socialism, a qualitatively new phase of economic cooperation.

Recommendations for coordination are only accepted with the consent of the countries concerned, respect for national sovereignty, non-interference, mutual benefit and assistance being its essential conditions. None of the CMEA countries may dispose of the material or financial resources of another member country or enjoy any privileges. Each of them elaborates independently its economic development plans, guided primarily by its own economic interests, in the context of the concrete economic and political tasks facing the country.

Coordination of economic plans enables each participant country to make provisions for meeting the demands of other countries for certain goods and receiving necessary products from them on the basis of mutual benefit and friendly assistance.

WHAT ARE THE FUNCTIONS OF THE INTERNATIONAL BANK FOR ECONOMIC COOPERATION?

The International Bank for Economic Cooperation was established on January 1, 1964, to settle multilateral accounts and supply credit for the foreign trade operations of the CMEA countries. Multilateral accounts are settled by the Bank in transferable roubles. The transferable rouble is neither a bank-note nor the national monetary unit of the Soviet Union but a means of payment used for settling

clearing accounts among the CMEA countries and equal to 0.987412 grammes of pure gold. The main source of getting roubles for each country is export. The proceeds from exporting goods to one country in transferable roubles may be used for paying for imports from any CMEA country or for making other payments.

The highest interest on credits granted by the Bank for foreign trade transactions or other operations is two per cent per annum, while in some cases credits are interest-free.

The International Bank for Economic Cooperation has a capital of 300 million transferable roubles. One-tenth of it may be converted into gold or convertible currency. The capital quotas of the participant countries are proportionate to their share in the trade turnover and may be made either in transferable roubles or convertible currency or gold.

The annual turnover of the Bank for the very first year ran into thousands of millions of transferable-roubles, and has since grown steadily along with the expanding transactions—a sign of successful development of foreign trade and other economic relations among the CMEA countries.

The activity of the International Bank for Economic Cooperation is based on complete equality and respect for the sovereign rights of the participant countries. Each of them, be it the Soviet Union which has contributed 116 million roubles of its capital, or Czechoslovakia whose quota is 45 million roubles, or Mongolia with its 3-million contribution—has one vote on the Bank's managing board.

WHAT PRINCIPLES UNDERLIE SOVIET COOPERATION WITH THE DEVELOPING COUNTRIES OF ASIA, AFRICA AND LATIN AMERICA?

The Soviet Union regards with understanding the aspiration of the newly independent countries to build up stable economies, and seeks to help them, first and foremost, to develop industry capable of producing the means of production and consumer goods.

Industrial projects being built with Soviet cooperation and the entire output of these projects belong from the very beginning to countries where they are being built.

In rendering technical assistance and in building various projects, the Soviet Union does its utmost to enable the developing country concerned to train its own builders, workers, engineers and technicians, including the personnel of the future enterprises.

The Soviet Union is engaged in economic construction on a vast scale, which requires the mobilisation of all its economic resources. At the same time the Soviet people and their Government consider it their internationalist duty to promote the prompt liquidation of the economic consequences of colonialism and all-round development of the newly independent states.

HOW IS TRADE DEVELOPING BETWEEN THE USSR AND ASIAN, AFRICAN AND LATIN AMERICAN COUNTRIES?

While the total volume of Soviet foreign trade grew by 150 per cent in 1955-65, the increase in trade with the developing countries in Asia, Africa and Latin America was more than sixfold.

In 1966 the Soviet Union traded with more than 50 developing countries as against 17 in 1955. It is also important that economic relations with 40 countries are based on inter-state agreements, some of them for long terms, since it enables the Soviet Union's trade partners in Asia, Africa and Latin America to have a clear economic perspective for several years and plan their production accordingly.

The USSR's trade with the developing countries is an important factor of their economic progress and independence, as confirmed by the pattern of trade. A steadily increasing share of Soviet exports to the developing countries consists of machines, equipment and other goods essential for the development of key branches of their economy, industrialisation, and mechanisation of their agriculture. For example, machines and equipment account for 82 per cent of Soviet exports to Ethiopia, over 65 per cent to the UAR and India, 75 per cent to Pakistan, 56 per cent to Mali, etc. On the other hand, Soviet imports from the developing countries are growing more varied and include both raw materials and the products of their national industry. Thus the United Arab Republic has been selling not only

more cotton but also cotton yarn and fabrics, while India is stepping up its sales of both traditional export items and manufactured goods (footwear, textiles, knitted wares, jute goods, etc.). This economic policy of the Soviet Union helps strengthen and develop the national industry in the developing countries.

Restrictive custom duties cause great harm to the foreign trade of the developing countries. According to the United Nations Organisation, the United States, Britain, Belgium, Japan, Holland, the Federal German Republic, France and Italy receive 800 to 900 million dollars annually from high custom duties on raw materials imported from Asian, African and Latin American countries.

Seeking to remove artificial obstacles in the way of foreign trade the Soviet Union lifted on January 1, 1965, on its own initiative custom duties on goods imported from the developing countries of Asia, Africa and Latin America.

In order to ensure a stable development of trade and maintain an economically justified level of prices for goods like cotton, vegetable oils, cocoa beans, bananas, copper and zinc the Soviet Union proposed to sign international stabilising agreements and to revise the existing international trade agreements and treaties in keeping with the interests of the developing countries.

WHAT TECHNICAL AID DOES THE USSR RENDER TO DEVELOPING COUNTRIES IN THE BUILDING OF INDUSTRIAL ENTERPRISES AND OTHER PROJECTS?

In concluding economic and technical cooperation agreements with the countries concerned, the Soviet Union undertakes to supply the equipment and materials needed for the given projects, and to render technical assistance in the actual building of these projects. This assistance consists of surveying, drawing up technical designs, construction and assembly, and fulfilment of all the work involved in making these projects operational.

Such all-sided technical cooperation is to the liking of governments of the countries concerned. It ensures the

rapid building and commissioning of enterprises and other projects, and thereby accelerates economic progress in these countries. Aiming to do all in its power to promote independent national economies in the new states and to enable them to acquire experience in technical and economic fields, the Soviet Union fulfils only such work and supplies only such equipment and materials that these countries cannot handle by themselves.

WHAT ASSISTANCE IS THE USSR GIVING TO TRAIN SPECIALISTS AND RESEARCH WORKERS IN THE NEWLY-LIBERATED COUNTRIES?

Technical schools of secondary and higher learning have been or are being built with Soviet assistance in Burma, India, Guinea, Cambodia, Afghanistan and Tunisia. In some countries (for example, the UAR, Mali, Ethiopia and Kenya) the Soviet Union is helping to build technical schools and educational centres to train skilled workers. In helping to build industrial and other projects, in carrying out designing, surveying, building, assembly and other work and in their day-to-day contacts with local personnel, Soviet specialists pass on their technical experience and knowledge. More than 10,000 Indian technicians and skilled workers were trained at India's Bhilai Iron and Steel Works, built with Soviet assistance. Over 30,000 skilled Afghan workers and specialists were trained at various projects in Afghanistan. Huge numbers of local technicians are being trained at the Aswan High Dam project in the UAR and at other projects.

National personnel of the developing countries are also being trained at Soviet factories and schools. Foreign workers and technicians receive vocational training at 150 modern Soviet plants. Since the USSR began economic cooperation with the developing countries of Asia and Africa nearly 23,000 technicians and workers have been trained in the Soviet Union.

Thousands of foreigners also study at various Soviet schools. In the 1965-66 academic year there were some 10,000 under-graduates and post-graduates from the developing countries at Soviet universities and colleges. Both theoretical and practical training of personnel from these

countries at Soviet schools, factories and institutions is free.

Altogether some 100,000 national personnel have been trained in the developing countries with Soviet assistance in the past few years.

ON WHAT TERMS ARE SOVIET CREDITS GRANTED?

The Soviet Union usually grants credits at a 2-3 per cent annual interest payable within 10-15 years beginning one to three years after the equipment and materials have been delivered and the project has been commissioned.

The total amount of long-term credits which the Soviet Union has given to the developing Asian and African countries alone exceeds 3,500 million roubles.

As a rule credits and interest on them are repaid by the delivery of traditional export goods of the recipient country or in its own currency which is also used to buy local goods.

In practice Soviet credits are paid back out of the profit from running the projects built with Soviet aid.

Soviet credits are an important source of financing the economic progress of the developing countries. In the United Arab Republic, for instance, Soviet credits supplied some 30 per cent of foreign currency required for the implementation of the second five-year plan of industrial development, while in India they accounted for nearly 12 per cent of the state investment in industry during the third five-year plan (1961-66).

WHAT PROJECTS ARE BEING BUILT IN ASIAN AND AFRICAN COUNTRIES WITH SOVIET ASSISTANCE?

Under economic and technical cooperation agreements the Soviet Union is helping 29 newly emerging countries to build over 600 industrial and other important economic projects, including 20 ferrous and non-ferrous metal works, 43 machine-building and metal-working plants, 15 chemical plants and oil refineries, 12 building materials factories, 30 power stations, and 60 light and food industry

enterprises. 350 projects are being built in Asia and 250—in Africa. Of these nearly 190 enterprises have already become operational. They include the Bhilai Iron and Steel Works in India, with a capacity of one million tons of steel a year (at present the Works' capacity is being enlarged to 2,500,000 tons a year), the Kabul bakery and a river port in Afghanistan, cotton ginneries and an oil refinery in the UAR, the sea port of Hodeida in Yemen, the Rangoon Technological Institute and a hospital in Burma.

Among 133 industrial projects being built with Soviet aid in the United Arab Republic (Soviet commitments have already been fulfilled in respect to 70 of these), the Aswan High Dam irrigation and power complex occupies a special place. The Aswan Dam will increase Egypt's area of irrigated land by one-third and provide the UAR's industry with a firm power base. The Dam will annually generate 10,000 million kwh of electricity—twice the present output of all Egypt's power installations.

In India, the Soviet Union is helping to build about 40 industrial and other projects, including a heavy-engineering plant, an electrical equipment works, two oil refineries, power stations and coal mines.

In Guinea, Mali, Somali, Nepal, Ceylon, Afghanistan and other countries the Soviet Union is helping to build a number of industrial enterprises, to carry out geological prospecting, to build roads, educational establishments, power stations and so on.

The annual capacity of the projects going up with Soviet assistance in the developing countries of Asia and Africa is as follows:

Steel	6 million tons
Iron ore	4.3 million tons
Coal	2.7 million tons
Oil processing	8.5 million tons
Electricity	5.1 million kw
Power equipment	3.2 million kw
Machine building	160,000 tons

WHAT IS THE SOVIET ATTITUDE TO EXPANDING TRADE WITH THE CAPITALIST COUNTRIES?

The USSR has invariably stood for expanding in every way trade and economic cooperation with all countries irrespective of their social system. The Soviet Union and other socialist countries are against isolation within national markets or the world socialist market and are always prepared to increase their trade with all interested capitalist countries.

Soviet trade with capitalist countries, primarily Finland, France, Italy, Japan, Britain and Sweden, has grown by over 50 per cent in the past five years (1961-65). Unfortunately the trade relations of the Western countries with the Soviet Union are not free from restrictions. Suffice it to mention the unilateral denouncement by the United States of its trade agreement with the Soviet Union, the prohibition to export so-called strategic goods to socialist countries, rigid time-limits on credits granted to the socialist countries, restrictions on imports of goods from the socialist countries. The United States is especially zealous in discriminating against trade with the Soviet Union.

However, the objective necessity of international division of labour and the commercial interest of business circles in profitable trade force the Western powers to expand their trade and economic relations with the USSR and other socialist states. At present the Soviet Union has trade agreements with almost all capitalist countries, many of them long-term treaties. In the past years Britain, France and Italy granted long-term credits to the Soviet Union to pay for equipment, mostly complete sets of plant, purchased in these countries. This fact shows that these states are interested in stable, beneficial trade relations with the Soviet Union, and favour more Soviet orders for such goods.

Broad economic exchange between the socialist countries and the capitalist states, free of discrimination, has a favourable effect on the international situation.

WHAT ARE THE ECONOMIC ADVANTAGES OF THE DISARMAMENT PROGRAMME PROPOSED BY THE USSR?

Disarmament would release tremendous forces and means now employed in armies and in manufacture of weapons. Armaments and upkeep of armies are today swallowing 120,000 million US dollars annually. This rate of expenditure is kept up, although each country including the most advanced, has many unresolved social and economic problems, to say nothing of the peoples who have only just shaken off the shackles of colonial subjection. According to economists, if only 8 to 10 per cent of this sum were used to expand aid to the young national states, it would be possible to wipe out starvation, disease and illiteracy from poverty-stricken areas of the world in 20 years. .

At the UN General Assembly 17th session the Soviet Union put forward an economic programme of disarmament. On the initiative of the USSR a declaration was adopted on using resources released through disarmament for peaceful purposes. The declaration stressed that, in combination with their own efforts and means, use of a part of these resources to promote economic progress in the less developed countries would allow these countries to achieve a considerable improvement in living standards of millions of people in the lifetime of the present generation. The declaration formulated a proposal to governments of the less developed countries and to the United Nations Secretary-General for drawing up development plans which could become a component of the economic programme of disarmament.

WHAT IS THE PAYMENT PROCEDURE UNDER SOVIET FOREIGN TRADE AGREEMENTS?

Payments involved in operations of Soviet foreign trade organisations are made through the State Bank of the USSR and the Bank for Foreign Trade in Moscow.

The procedure and form of payment for goods are usually stipulated in the trade or special payment agreements signed by the USSR with other countries. In its trade with most countries the USSR uses the clearing account form of

settlement: the money due to foreign trade partners is deposited by Soviet foreign trade organisations in a special clearing account opened at the State Bank of the USSR by the central bank of the country concerned, while foreign partners deposit the corresponding sums of money in their country in a clearing account opened by the State Bank of the USSR in the central bank of that country. Agreements provide for equal goods deliveries between the countries at prices prevailing for a definite period, and, as a result of this, for equality of payments. The State Bank of the USSR and the corresponding banks of the partner countries notify each other of all deposits in the clearing accounts, and pay the organisations and enterprises in their country the sums due to them. In most cases the clearing currency is the currency of the countries concerned.

All payments between the Soviet Union and the member countries of the Council for Mutual Economic Aid are settled in convertible roubles through the International Bank for Economic Cooperation, founded by the CMEA participants.

The Soviet Union, furthermore, concludes agreements on the following terms of payment: cash, encashment or by letter of credit.

With the newly independent countries the Soviet Union usually maintains a balance of trade, which enables these countries to buy industrial and other goods needed by them in exchange for their traditional goods, thus saving foreign currency and gold.

WHAT IS THE SOVIET UNION'S CUSTOMS POLICY?

Customs tariffs in the Soviet Union are very liberal. They provide for customs-free import or a low tariff for most goods. The tariff is based on the principle of reciprocity: the lowest rates or customs-free import apply to goods coming or imported from countries which extend the most favoured nation treatment to goods purchased from the Soviet Union. The customs tariffs are higher for goods imported from countries which do not extend such treatment to Soviet goods.

Import and export permits are issued by the Ministry of Foreign Trade or by Soviet trade representatives abroad. Special rules cover the export of antiques, works of art and goods of vegetable or animal origin.

Soviet Scientific, Technical and Cultural Cooperation With Foreign Countries

WITH WHAT COUNTRIES DOES THE USSR HAVE SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNICAL COOPERATION?

With all interested countries. The USSR cooperates in these fields with Czechoslovakia, Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland, Rumania, Mongolia and other socialist countries, either on the basis of bilateral agreements or under scientific and technical programmes drawn up by the Council for Mutual Economic Aid.

Cooperation between the USSR and the developing countries is manifested first and foremost in diverse forms of economic and technical aid, which the Soviet Union is rendering to 29 countries, including India, the United Arab Republic, Guinea, Iraq, Cambodia, Nepal, etc., in accordance with the agreements signed with these countries.

The USSR also cooperates in science and technology with Britain, France, Japan, Italy and other capitalist countries.

HOW IS SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNICAL COOPERATION IMPLEMENTED BETWEEN THE USSR AND OTHER SOCIALIST COUNTRIES?

Initially scientific and technical cooperation among the socialist countries was in the form of exchange of scientific and technological achievements and know-how, designing and technical documentation, samples of products, information, specialists, etc.

Further development of scientific and technical cooperation within the framework of the Council for Mutual Economic Aid resulted in new ways of international specialisation and cooperation in scientific research, coordination of research programmes, organisation of international research centres, exchange of scientific and technical information and division of labour in reviewing and abstracting international scientific and technical literature.

The question of international designing and research centres under CMEA has now been settled, and CMEA has organised a standardisation institute of its own.

The research institutions of the CMEA countries cooperate by working jointly on hundreds of specific problems, organising scientific conferences, symposiums, expositions, etc.

Coordination of research programmes is practised widely. In 1965 some 700 research and designing organisations of the CMEA countries took part in their realisation.

The CMEA agencies have prepared a comprehensive plan of coordinating major research projects for 1966-70, covering 50 problems subdivided into some 200 topics, the actual work being guided by a standing committee on coordination of scientific and technical research as well as other CMEA standing committees.

All these measures are of considerable economic benefit for the socialist countries.

WHAT INTERNATIONAL SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNICAL BODIES DOES THE USSR BELONG TO?

The Soviet Union is a member of nearly 100 international scientific and technical organisations, including the

World Meteorological Organisation, International Astronautical Federation, International Atomic Energy Agency, Joint Institute for Nuclear Research, International Radio and Television Organisation, UNESCO, International Astronomical Union, International Geological Congress, International Union Against Cancer, International Law Association, International Commission for High Dams, International Mining Commission, International Weights and Measures Committee and Organisation of Railway Cooperation.

Soviet scientists are taking an active part in the implementation of such international programmes as Antarctic studies, the International Year of the Quiet Sun, the International Biological Programme, the World Ocean Studies Programme, and others.

WHAT CONTACTS ARE THERE BETWEEN SOVIET AND FOREIGN SCIENTISTS?

The forms of contact between Soviet and foreign scientists include exchanges of delegations, professors and students, and of literature and exhibitions; participation in international congresses, membership of international scientific and technical organisations and carrying out research according to complex programmes drawn up by these organisations.

In 1966 alone nearly 3,500 Soviet scientists visited more than 60 countries where they did research work, took part in congresses, conferences, symposiums and gave lectures. In the same year the USSR Academy of Sciences received 9,300 scientists from 83 countries.

WHAT CONTRIBUTION HAS THE USSR MADE TO INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION IN THE PEACEFUL USES OF ATOMIC ENERGY?

The Soviet Union has placed a quantity of uranium-235 and other fissionable material at the disposal of the International Atomic Energy Agency to enable it to render technical assistance to the countries concerned.

In addition to this the Soviet Union is directly cooperating with many countries in the field of nuclear physics and peaceful uses of atomic energy. In the last decade the USSR concluded on these lines 30 inter-governmental agreements and protocols with other countries. Beginning with 1957, the Soviet Union has assisted a number of countries to build and commission nine nuclear reactors, six cyclotrons, seven radio-chemical and physical laboratories and an electrostatic generator. On the basis of these installations Bulgaria, Hungary, the German Democratic Republic, Rumania, Poland, the UAR, Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia have created national atomic research centres.

An atomic research centre is being completed in Iraq with Soviet assistance, and similar projects are going up in other countries.

The USSR will help build atomic power stations in the German Democratic Republic, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia and Hungary.

At the 10th session of the General Conference of the International Atomic Energy Agency held in November 1966 the Soviet Union once again offered to render considerable technical assistance to the developing countries in the peaceful uses of atomic energy, including the delivery of equipment, instruments and materials. The USSR also granted 20 scholarships to the Atomic Energy Agency for training national personnel from the developing countries.

The Joint Institute for Nuclear Research, in which scientists and engineers from socialist countries are cooperating, was set up in the Soviet town of Dubna. Modern equipment including a unique 10,000 million electronvolt proton synchrotron has been turned over to the Institute free of charge by the Soviet Government.

IN WHAT INTERNATIONAL HEALTH BODIES IS THE USSR ACTIVE?

The World Health Organisation, the International Association of Doctors for the Study of the Living Conditions and Health of the Population, the World Federation of Neurological Societies, the European League Against Rheumatism, the International Federation of Gynaecology and Obstetrics, the International Pediatrics Federation,

the International Union Against Cancer, the International Union Against Tuberculosis, the International Union for Health Education of the Public, the International Society for Internal Medicine, the International College of Surgeons, the International Society of Blood Transfusion, the International Society of Haematology, the International Society of the History of Medicine.

WHAT ASSISTANCE IN THE PUBLIC HEALTH FIELD DOES THE USSR RENDER OTHER COUNTRIES?

The Soviet Union is helping the UAR, India, Iraq and the Democratic Republic of Vietnam to create their own medical supplies industry: factories producing pharmaceutical preparations and surgical instruments. With Soviet help big hospitals have been or are being built in Cambodia, Indonesia, Iraq, Burma, Nepal, Somali, Laos, Ethiopia and Guinea.

Soviet doctors are working in Ethiopia, Burma, Mali, Yemen, India, Guinea, the Democratic Republic of Vietnam, the Mongolian People's Republic and other countries. For example, during the 17 years the Soviet hospital has been working in Ethiopia, its doctors have attended to more than 300,000 patients, and a total of 42,000 people were hospitalised.

Besides ordinary medical practice Soviet doctors help organise a modern public health system in the developing countries, they help stamp out epidemics, do research work and train local medical personnel.

HOW DOES THE SOVIET UNION PROMOTE CULTURAL RELATIONS WITH OTHER COUNTRIES?

Through exchanges of cultural delegations, exhibitions, radio and TV programmes, films and groups of performers. These relations are promoted on the basis of bilateral state agreements and plans on cultural exchanges and also through public organisations. Twenty-six Soviet national

art exhibitions were organised in 38 countries in 1966, and hundreds of expositions were shown by friendship societies and other organisations. Some 300 artists and art critics visited foreign lands. More than 100 composers gave concerts abroad or read lectures about Soviet music, while other 600 cultural workers took part in discussions and meetings with their foreign colleagues. Young Soviet performers participated in 8 international contests, and over 150 Soviet films were shown at 37 international festivals.

About 60 Soviet artistic groups made 180 trips to various countries on all continents, half of them to the countries of Asia, Africa and Latin America. Many young artists from the Union Republics visited foreign lands for the first time. A total of 4,000 performances and concerts was given by more than 11,000 Soviet artists in 1966.

In turn the Soviet Union played host to more than 50 big artistic groups and thousands of performers from dozens of countries in 1966.

Each year about 30,000 Soviet cultural workers, scientists and sportsmen go abroad and about the same number or more come to the Soviet Union.

The USSR has cultural relations with more than 100 countries. Agreements on cultural cooperation have been signed with over 40 of them.

WHAT SOVIET ORGANISATIONS PROMOTE CULTURAL CONTACTS WITH FOREIGN COUNTRIES?

On a government level cultural relations are organised by the USSR Council of Ministers Committee for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries. It draws up and concludes international agreements on cultural cooperation and promotes the fulfilment of these agreements. Among public organisations that are actively promoting cultural relations, mention must be made of the Union of Soviet Societies of Friendship with Foreign Countries which unites numerous societies, associations and institutes of friendship and cultural relations with foreign countries. It exchanges delegations, films, books and photo exhibitions with public organisations in 120 countries.

Cultural exchanges are also promoted by the Ministry of Culture of the USSR, the Committee for Cinematography, the Union of Writers of the USSR, the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, the All-Union «Znanie» Society, the Ministry of Higher and Secondary Specialised Education of the USSR, the Union of Journalists of the USSR and the Union of Sports Societies and Organisations of the USSR.

WHAT INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATIONS DO SOVIET CULTURAL WORKERS BELONG TO?

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO); the World Federation of Scientific Workers; the European Writers' Association; the International Organisation of Journalists; the International Theatre Institute; the Afro-Asian Writers' Solidarity Committee; the International Scientific Film Association; the International Union of Cinematographic Technology Societies; the International Union of Architects; the International Union of Puppet Theatre Workers; the International Museum Council; the International Music Council; the International Radio and Television Organisation and many others.

WHAT ROLE DOES THE USSR PLAY IN UNESCO?

The Soviet Union, and also the Ukraine and Byelorussia, have been members of UNESCO since 1954.

The USSR is perseveringly and consistently working to turn this organisation into an effective instrument to promote equitable and mutually advantageous cultural cooperation among all countries, into an effective agency for strengthening world peace, friendship and understanding among nations.

The Soviet Union takes an active part in the UNESCO measures to help the developing countries in the fields of culture and education.

ARE FOREIGN ART EXHIBITIONS ARRANGED IN THE USSR?

Foreign art is usually displayed at national exhibitions held by foreign countries in the USSR.

In addition, exhibitions of individual artists are regularly organised in the USSR. In the past few years there have been exhibitions of the work of Pablo Picasso (France), Renato Guttuso (Italy), Rockwell Kent (USA), Fernand Leger (France) and other artists.

IS IT POSSIBLE TO BUY FOREIGN BOOKS IN THE USSR OR TO SUBSCRIBE TO FOREIGN JOURNALS?

There is a large trade turnover in books, magazines and newspapers with foreign countries through *Exportkniga*, *Soyuzpechat* and *Mezhdunarodnaya Kniga*, the Soviet commercial organisations operating in this field.

In Moscow a number of shops sell only foreign publications.

Many foreign books and periodicals are received through direct exchanges with foreign libraries. The biggest Soviet libraries, such as the Lenin Library, the Central Library of the Academy of Sciences and the Foreign Literature Library, receive the latest foreign books and periodicals.

ARE THERE RESTRICTIONS IN THE USSR ON DISSEMINATION OF INFORMATION FROM ABROAD (BOOKS, NEWSPAPERS, RADIO BROADCASTS AND SO ON)?

In its relations with foreign peoples, the Soviet Union follows the principle of encouraging everything that promotes mutual understanding and strengthens trust in the interests of world peace. Soviet laws prohibit propaganda that incites war and hate.

In conformity with Soviet legislation and the practice of state and public organisations instilling in Soviet people the spirit of peace, friendship and fraternity among nations, sanctions may be used against the sources of information that flagrantly violate this principle. This fully applies to foreign sources of information.

